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Recruitment

Index, 1952

Quarterly Journal of
The Civil Service Assembly of the United States and Canada



PUBLIC PERSONNEL REVIEW

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Editorial Notes and Comments

The January, 1952, issue of *Public Personnel Review* contained the article "Detroit Experiments in Arbitrating Labor Disputes" by Charles R. Adrian. Subsequently, in the July issue of the *Review* we published an article by Messrs. D. J. Sublette and Charles Meyer titled "Detroit Does Not Experiment in Arbitrating Labor Disputes." Mr. Adrian, the author of the original article, now submits a brief comment on the Sublette-Meyer article.

Is compulsory arbitration, like so many things that are less familiar than an old pair of bedroom slippers, un-American? Should we despair of efforts to place organized labor in government on a par with that working for private endeavor? Should we ignore lessons that our fellow-democratic nations can teach us? The recent debate in this magazine, which appears to raise these questions by implication, is not so much between advocates and opponents of compulsory arbitration as it is between persons of differing philosophies of administration. The rebuttal to my suggestion that we give arbitration a try seems to be based in large part upon two assumptions that I cannot accept: first, that elected public officials or a civil service commission can act as arbiters between municipal employees and the general public; and secondly, that there are essential differences in employer-employee relations in the public sphere of society as distinguished from the private (excepting, perhaps differences that may be caused by the prohibition of the right to strike in those areas where the protection of the public health and safety are imperative).

Concerning the first point, it is asserted that I ignore "the fact that a civil service commission inherently is performing the arbitration function," or that "elected officials serve as arbitrators in the interest of the entire public." I do not ignore it. I deny it. That we have here traditional political theory, I concede. But the theory diverges widely from practice. A bus driver or a fireman is not interested in whether he is employed by an impersonal public bureaucracy or an impersonal private bureaucracy. Management is management, to him. Traditional theory does not hold up because the employee views his immediate superior, the

civil service commission, the city council and the mayor, all as part of management. And in labor-management negotiations, the commission and the elected officials are not arbiters—they are the opposition. They cannot, therefore, to him, perform the arbitration function. It is the picture in the heads of the workers, not abstract textbook theory, that counts.

Employer-employee relations in the public sphere may indeed differ from those in the private business world so far as "a strong personal financial stake" is concerned, but only if the municipality is compared with an individual proprietorship, or a small partnership or corporation. The city of Detroit and other large cities, which are multi-million dollar providers of services to the public, must be compared, however, with private corporations of similar size. In such large organizations, negotiators with organized labor are nearly always salaried bureaucrats who are motivated more by considerations of power and prestige than by the possibility of losing, directly at least, dollars from their own pockets. So is it also in negotiations between organized labor and our larger cities. The similarities between public and private organizations in their relationships with employees far exceed, it seems to me, the differences. And the differences in the sum totals of wages, hours, and conditions of labor must be none at all, I believe, if we are to have able people in the municipal service.

It is true, as stated in the previous articles on this subject, that Detroit has used arbitration for disputes arising in the Department of Street Railways and that the effort has left things to be desired. Comparison with the fire department provisions reveals differences, however. The D.S.R. authorization is not unilaterally compulsory as is the other (hence it has not prevented strikes). Furthermore, there appears to be a considerably greater sense of responsibility on the part of the firemen's association than is the case with the bus and street-car operators' union. Arbitration could not work in England without a strong sense of social responsibility on the part of the unions. Neither can it here. And certainly many unions have been woefully lacking in this sense. Yet unions are here to stay and they, like management, must move much farther forward toward a sense of responsibility to one another and to society. (It is worth noting that in the

(Continued on page 185)

Navy Develops Its Civilian

Executives JAMES C. STEPHENS

BOTH industry and government agree that it pays to spend time, money, and effort to improve executive talent. The old school of unplanned experience and training is gradually giving way to a more systematic approach to developing executive abilities. Leadership and knowledge are urgently needed to run the nation's large industrial enterprises and governmental programs. This article describes how these executive abilities are found and developed in the Navy Department.

At the Tercentenary Celebration of Harvard University in 1936 Mr. Edward R. Stettinius, Jr., speaking at the Graduate School of Business Administration, outlined a broad program for developing executives. Before then, executive development had been little heard of, but interest mounted during the ten years that followed.¹ In 1947 the Secretary of Navy, the late James V. Forrestal, ordered a survey of fifty-three leading American industries to see what they were doing to relieve the shortage of managerial personnel. This survey showed that industry's answer was a "complete, formal, perpetual inventory plan of timed executive growth and replacement." The report recommended that a similar plan be applied to the problem of augmenting executive strength in the federal government.²

The need to train for Navy military leadership has long been regarded as self-evident. Navy has recognized that key ci-

vilians must be trained also, that it cannot rely upon chance for its civilian leadership.

Background

FOLLOWING World War II there was a shortage of executives in government. Many who were on leave from industry and colleges returned to their former jobs. Their places were hard to fill. Many who had stayed on the job past retirement age retired, creating still more openings. The press of war work had made it difficult to start career developmental programs. These were the primary reasons which attracted the attention of the Secretary of the Navy to the need for planned executive development.

The Navy Department extracted certain features from its military leadership career training programs and from the findings of the Forrestal Report. These were coupled with its experience in the Commission's Intern Programs starting in 1944 and written into an Executive Selection and Development Agreement which was submitted to the Commission in December, 1949. In approving the proposal, the Commission commended the Department for submitting the first plan for "recognizing the vital importance for competent career leadership and for setting up a sound and progressive program to meet this need."

Planned Executive Selection and Development

A TRAINING program designed to attract the most promising young college graduates and to develop potential employees at all grade levels in fields of management requires breadth of thinking and particularly careful planning, timing, and administration. Developing "managers" who must know mechanics as well as the principles of budgeting, personnel, purchasing, organization, and public relations, offers a

¹ For a comprehensive survey of subjects, see *National Industrial Conference Board Report 107*, "Company Programs of Executive Development," New York City, 1950.

² *Personnel at the Executive Level* (Forrestal Report) (Annapolis, Md.: United States Naval Institute, 1948), p. 45.

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challenge to all who are applying the plan.

Selection.—An executive is one who gets things done through the efforts of others. What must he know? What skills and abilities must he have? There is no agreement on what he must be. The Navy uses three criteria to select potential executives.

1. General learning ability and administrative judgment—to pick those who can learn rapidly and profit the most from a series of work situations.
2. Mature personality and verbal facility—to select people who can adjust easily in group and individual associations. This is determined through multiple interviews by administrative officials.
3. Recommendation of supervisors based upon individual performance records, work experience, and demonstrated leadership on the job as well as in outside educational, professional, or other activities.

Under the Navy plan, people are built up from the bottom as well as given an opportunity to broaden their experience if they are already in the higher grade management positions. It provides for training three groups of employees:

1. Young people with high learning ability and great promise. They are selected from among present employees earning from \$2500-3795 in January and from recent college graduates in July. All meet the qualifications required of young college graduates entering management fields in the federal government.
2. Employees earning from \$4205-10,800 in management or technical work who need additional experience to qualify for more responsible positions in administrative fields.
3. Professional or scientific employees earning from \$4205-10,800 who expect to assume administrative duties to advance in their professional or scientific fields.

Development.—The program provides for a six-month standard basic training plan or an individual training proposal. The Navy Intern Group, composed of the young promising employees, follows the standard plan. Employees in the other two groups, called Executive Trainees, prepare training proposals which meet their individual needs. Basic training plans cover five administrative fields—personnel, general administration, organization and methods, budget administration,

and public information. The Intern is indoctrinated in Navy management and acquainted with modern administrative practices. Executive Trainees work under more tailored training plans to broaden their experience and knowledge through job rotation which may last from six months to two years.

An example will illustrate how an Executive Trainee's plans are tailored to meet Navy's as well as his own needs. One of the Navy scientific research offices desired an assistant to its Chief Scientist. An employee well grounded in organization and management with a background in public administration was selected and trained for the position. He lacked experience in budget formulation and control in the operation of a federal research program. As an Executive Trainee he served one year as a Budget Analyst for a research group which administers a 30 million dollar contract research program. In addition to these duties he acted as an Executive Secretary to a Naval Research Advisory Group, a high policy committee composed of eminent scientists and research administrators. Experience in these assignments qualified the trainee for the administrative assistant position.

In higher level executive training, more often the immediate job needs determine the training plan. For instance, a standardization engineer in one of the large bureaus needed a high degree of management ability to work with government and international groups. His office being small and his work load heavy he could not be away from it for any length of time. His training plan, covering two years, provides guided experience which will not take him away from his regular job except for short tours of duty and attendance at technical meetings. These are supplemented by special conferences, acting in his chief's absence, reading current management literature, serving on technical committees, and participating in professional management society meetings. This training, although on-the-job, is *planned and scheduled for specific objectives*. Through it the engineer is learning administration, improving job knowledge, and broadening his experience in working

with people. It thus permits a senior man, who might otherwise find it impossible to leave the office, to develop his executive skills.

Training Methods Used

BOTH of these training plans and proposals cover the following developmental features:

1. *Orientation.*—This consists of planned group meetings where top management and technical officials discuss their experiences and jobs. They help raise the specialized thinking of the intern to a general plane where he can grasp the relationship of various Navy programs. The Executive trainee undergoes a more specialized orientation. It is designed to acquaint him in more detail with each new administrative field. This may consist of individual consultations, conferences, or part-time continuing assignments with periodic reports.

2. *Planned Work Assignments.*—Under the standard plan, each intern has fifteen weeks of rotating work experience. These assignments are in the five administrative fields. A supervisor, in accepting an intern, expects to profit from his time and to get something done for his office. The intern, besides doing a job, has a chance to see executives and to work with them. This creates a learning experience which is an important phase of executive development. A supervisor who has had an intern who did a good job seldom refuses to take another. The situation in work assignments is quite well described by the intern who stated: "One man said he would give me five minutes of his time, then gave me two hours." The intern was well acquainted with the shop and what it was doing, having read about it beforehand. The supervisor, liking to talk about his work, appreciated a sympathetic audience who was there to listen and learn.

From these work assignments, trainees experience how management operates by taking responsibility for a part of it. Seeing human relations in action, they recognize that an organization chart is not always congruent with actual lines of power and authority. They observe informal as well as formal communication and organization. They participate in making man-

agement decisions. Because of the variety of situations which confront them, they must adjust and adapt themselves to people in many phases of work. First hand know-how of terms, forms, and work flow complements superficial acquaintance with the operations. In short, they develop self-confidence and feel more secure when working with the tools of management. The administrative process is no longer a mystery. Information gained in one office is applied in another. Perspective of the whole replaces narrow thinking and stereotyped ideas. They recognize the importance of relationships in working with people and things. Armed with this knowledge and experience they are well able to take over administrative assignments with greater sureness.

3. *Related Study.*—Appropriate courses are taken after working hours. In selecting these the individual tries to supplement his academic background. The majority of courses taken are in public administration, personnel, and budgeting. George Washington and American Universities offer scholarships to government interns. Trainees in Navy who do not take courses make special studies, prepare research papers, and complete work on their theses for graduate degrees.

4. *Career Counseling.*—This is an important part of the learning process also. Each intern, having spelled out his career goals and appraised his ability to achieve them, is helped by Executive Counselors and the Program Director. These advisers help to find the weak spots in his career plan. Through this counseling he locates his personality weaknesses, lack of experience or ability, and shapes a plan of action to correct these deficiencies. Executive Counselors, having complete records and evaluations made by supervisors before them, speak frankly, using examples of the intern's work and performance to convince him of the reasons for change.

5. *Group Meetings.*—These are bi-weekly seminars for self-improvement. Here Interns and Executive Trainees are presented with problems or cases taken from actual situations in the Navy bureaus and offices. They gain experience in re-

port writing, conference leadership, staff work, and analyzing administrative problems. They are confronted with linking the knowledge gained in work assignments and study with a practical problem arising from daily operations. They lead and plan some of the conferences themselves. Others are led by top executives who discuss the case with them. Their experience is shared by the group. The by-play of ideas and thinking among the group contributes to individual self-analysis and improvement.

Assignment

EACH intern's immediate job assignment is decided upon supervisory reports and individual progress and performance. Interns are given their preference wherever possible. When Executive Trainees achieve their training objective they may return to their old positions or be placed where their new knowledge and skill can better be used by Navy. Both groups, along with presently qualified employees, make up a reservoir of executive manpower.

What Has Navy Learned About Executive Development?

THREE years experience with supervisors in training over 110 young people and 15 higher level executives in management has given Navy some know-how in executive development. Success which the program has had and its acceptance by all Navy bureaus may be attributed to these things: (1) defined needs, (2) carefully selected small groups of trainees, (3) demonstration methods, (4) planned participation for all levels of management, (5) recognition of those who participate, both trainers and trainees, (6) live situational training environment by problem and demonstration, and (7) coaching and assisting trainees by executive counselors, supervisors and Program Director. Closer examination of these factors will show why they have served Navy so well.

1. *Defined needs.*—A study of turnover figures of high level administrative personnel showed a definite need for planned future replacement. But how was top management to see it? The logical way

would be to take an inventory of present positions and vacancies. Then from it, draw up replacement schedules and train people to fill the jobs. Navy did not start with an inventory. Getting management to realize the immediate benefits of a training program is difficult. To get it to realize those which might take ten years to materialize would be hard to visualize. So we started training a small group at first (only nine) and allowed the greater needs to become recognized. As the training program progressed and gained support, this method of demonstrating a need resulted in receiving more requests for trainees than could be met. We found out that one well trained administrative staff assistant performing on the job convinces supervisors and budget officials of the need far more than any figures, no matter how well presented.

2. *Carefully selected small groups.*—All demands to increase the size of Intern groups have been resisted. Interest in becoming an Intern has grown in proportion to the successful assignments and promotions of those trained. Experience has shown that the optimum size of a group is 25. To increase it beyond that number makes the group unwieldy, the individual trainee has not sufficient opportunity for self-development in group meetings, and the number of trainees in work assignments becomes a problem for the supervisors. Careful selection to accept only those who meet high standards assures thorough training and more self-development as well as individual appraisal of progress during the training program.

3. *Demonstration methods.*—Not knowing exactly what training method would be most satisfactory, Navy has tried many in different situations. Accepting the general principle that we learn best by doing, we have sought to place the learner as close to the actual work situation as possible. There he can observe supervisors and executives, learn from their experience, see at first hand how they operate, and through skillful questioning, gain some insight into the executive's job. While working alongside the supervisor, the Intern and Executive Trainee are guided in their assignments. Having defi-

nite planned work projects, both Intern and supervisor have an interest in the results. The trainee demonstrates and uses his skill in applying good management techniques in completing his work project and usually leaves a finished product for the supervisor. This demonstrated result makes it easier for the supervisor to say "yes" when asked if he would like to take another intern for training.

Understudy is another method used by Navy to train executives. The learner is placed under selected leadership and competent supervision. There he studies and observes good supervision in action. Some of these details are for a few weeks. Others may last several months. Actual responsibility for preparing budgets, handling personnel actions, or making management surveys is given the trainee. The trainee is given enough responsibility to demonstrate his skill, see his own weaknesses, and to try his hand at actual administration. With sympathetic supervision he rapidly progresses from simpler to more difficult executive work.

The use of "special assignments" is a method which allows the trainee to demonstrate his ability. In these, he may act as a recorder at round tables for professional society meetings, arrange conferences, and lead group meetings. All of these activities require preparation. He must plan and budget his time, gather facts, analyze them, make a report, and justify his conclusions. These actions on his part begin to "set" good work habits. They let him decide how much he should take on. He soon realizes the need for determining a time schedule for his activities and assigning a priority to his goals. He must adjust to many situations and recognize his own limitations.

4. *Planned participation.*—Everywhere we can, we plan for management's participation. We call upon high level officials to lead discussions, talk about their specialties, and serve upon selection panels to choose the best people the Navy has for the program. They serve as a policy and planning board to approve the procedures and the administration of the program. As Executive Counselors, they advise and

counsel the Interns, Executive Trainees, and help others interested in the setting of career goals. They become involved in, and accept responsibility for, major portions of the program. Their full acceptance of this responsibility attests to their attitude and feeling toward the program. Without them, it would not be possible to plan the development of key civilians in the Navy Department.

Middle management and supervisors are also important people in running the training program. Their participation is equal to that of top management. Since they usually recommend the applicant they often feel a special interest in his progress. All trainees call upon them for help in planning their work assignments. Supervisors coach and train them on the job. Finally, they appraise and evaluate finished work. Few supervisors, after having trainees, fail to respond when called upon to assist in some phase of the program. Their contributions to its success can not be overemphasized. Their participation must be carefully planned and encouraged at every opportunity.

5. *Recognition of those who participate.*—Special ways are sought to recognize those who have made and continue to make executive development effective in the Navy Department. Two methods which have been used might be of interest. Executive counselors receive certificates signed by the Secretary of the Navy which commend them for their part in the program. Also, speakers are given publicity in house organs.

Interns and Executive Trainees in many cases receive their letters of completion of training from the Chief of the Bureau. They are given promotions and more responsibility upon their return to the bureau. Outstanding work which they may have done is publicized.

6. *Live situational training environment—by problem and demonstration.*—All training received is practical. The Intern and Executive Trainee are placed in situations where they must make decisions, plan their work, meet time schedules, and in other ways step into the executive work pattern. Supervisors don't plan "canned"

work. They take projects which are current and which would normally be assigned to a staff member. The trainee gets his teeth into something which when finished means satisfaction to himself and his supervisor. Problems which are used during the group meeting are practical, also. They have been prepared from raw material gathered in the Navy or taken directly from current unsolved administrative problems. They too require analysis, decision, and planned action.

Our demonstration feature comes from placing the trainee where he observes executives at work and shares that work with them. He is not kept from negative situations. We feel that it is important that he know what not to do. He should be able to recognize poor supervision, indecision, and lack of administrative control when he sees them.

7. *Coaching and assisting trainees.*—This phase of the growth and development of the trainee is an integral part of his learning experience. Career counseling which has already been discussed takes place more often off the job. On the other hand, coaching takes place practically entirely on the job. After completing the evaluation form which is made on each trainee, many supervisors sit down and review his performance with him. At that time often a frank and helpful discussion takes place. The trainee develops real skill and increases his knowledge of management through a sympathetic and patient supervisor.

Periodic progress reviews are made by the Program Director. This appraisal covers the entire performance and from it comes a plan for individual improvement. The trainee learns how well he is doing and the Program Director finds out the weak spots in the program.

In summary, we believe that the closer

the program is to present operating activities, the more practical is the training. Keeping the program's administration and training flexible makes it possible to take advantage of opportunities to fit training into live situations. Top and middle management's participation must be planned for and encouraged.

We did not sell the idea of this training program. We involved people in it. These people were in the best position to influence the program and to profit from the results. This involvement makes it necessary for them to lead and participate. It becomes *their* program. They have a real part in it and therefore assure its success.

Conclusions

LEADERSHIP training for military commanders pays huge dividends. The Navy believes that training selected civilians in the arts of management and human relations will do likewise. Navy needs for high caliber civilian management are being met partly through Executive Development. At this time we can only measure our progress by three practical indices:

1. The increased interest and receptivity of the consumers—the supervisors and others who accept trainees on the job.
2. The rapid progress of trainees in self-development and promotion.
3. The great interest of employees and college graduates coming to Navy in applying for the program.

Through this program Navy management is becoming more effective. Employees with potential and promise are afforded an opportunity to grow and develop. These people are taking their place with the military commanders in the efforts of all Navy toward common defense goals.

A Simple Method of Improving Personnel Examinations FRANZISKA T. HEBERLE

ITEM analysis has been employed by a large number of agencies as a method of improving examinations. Stress has also been laid on simplifying the procedures used so that necessary computations could be made by clerical personnel. In this paper we wish to determine whether the various uses of the correlation coefficient for item analysis are sufficiently superior to other methods to justify the time and effort consumed in the computations. Could not a simple item count serve as well for evaluating an item? We believe a count of correct answers for each item is even more useful to improve an examination for personnel selection than the computation of correlation coefficients.

Procedures for item analysis have been devised for intelligence and other personality tests where the number of candidates and the possibilities of repeating a test until it is satisfactory are far greater than usually exist in the public service. Even so, a statistically exact measure of correlation between the result of the test as a whole and the response to single items usually cannot be applied in a way to warrant determination of the exact size of a coefficient. The coefficient of correlation is, as a rule, used only to "identify the seriously defective items, i.e. those with negative or very low indices."¹ Therefore, if the numerical value of the significant positive correlation is disregarded entirely, it appears to be unnecessary. The problem remaining for the test technician is to find those items which would result in a negative or very low positive coefficient of correlation, if a statistical item analysis were applied. These items can be identified very easily as we shall try to show.

¹ "The Construction and Use of Achievement Examinations" edited by Herbert E. Hawkes, E. F. Lindquist, and C. R. Mann, as quoted in *Public Personnel Review*, April, 1949, p. 81.

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Elimination of Items

THE PROCEDURE begins like the first steps taken in making an item analysis. The answer sheets are arranged numerically according to raw score, divided into three equal groups, and then the number of correct answers is counted for each of the groups. Instead of going on to compute percentages and finding the correlation coefficient, the result of the item count itself is transcribed on the margin of the test booklet beside each item investigated. The result of each group may be written in form of a fraction, taking the total number of candidates in the group as the denominator. A red, blue, and green pencil may be used for the different groups, to facilitate the inspection.

The items which would result in a negative correlation can easily be identified by inspection. They are those items which have been answered by more candidates in a low group than by the candidates in one of the higher groups.

Items for which a correlation with the total test score would result in a low positive coefficient can also be detected by inspection. The item count for the different groups will always be very close together for these items; the numbers might all be very low, indicating that few of the total candidates answered the question, or very high, indicating that almost all candidates answered the item, or otherwise close together. In any case, the item, as it is, does not contribute much to differences in the total test result. If the purpose of computing correlation coefficients is merely to eliminate the types of item just described, the purpose can certainly be reached with less effort.

We agree that eliminating defective items can be an effective means of improving a test. If 800 items are given repeatedly and only the 80 items are retained which showed a correlation of plus .75 with the total test result, the result of the item an-

alysis has been applied in an exact enough manner to justify the computation of correlation coefficients for each item. However, in testing for selection of public personnel, the number of items available to examine for a particular position is usually limited. The number of items cannot be reduced upon the second application of an examination. Thus, new items have to be selected for replacement as defective items are eliminated. One condition should be fulfilled: there should be assurance that new items have more discriminating properties than the items being replaced. As a rule, unfortunately, items which give this assurance are not available. The new items are selected just like the items which proved useless or defective: on the basis of the judgment of examining technicians and subject-matter experts. However, if judgment is applied to determine why an item already used proved nondiscriminatory, there is more likelihood that it will discriminate after review and correction than will an untried item used as a replacement. Besides, it is also wasteful to eliminate an item completely since it takes more time to write a new item than to correct one which is already available.

A review of the item will show, in many instances, the most likely reason for its failure to discriminate. It is surprising how much the results of an item count sharpen the technician's analytic view of the item content. Weaknesses of the item which he has overlooked heretofore are revealed to him, if he finds that the result is unusual and analyzes why the candidates responded in a particular manner. If no candidate gave the correct answer, the reason may be found in an involved premise or in an erroneous key. If a premise has an involved wording like: "Of the following sets of limitations on social insurance as a method of mitigating the effects of the common hazards of modern life, the most serious is that including the . . ." and none of 100 otherwise qualified candidates answered it correctly, it must not necessarily be concluded that none of them knew what it is that limits the effectiveness of social insurance to give

everybody security. Changing the wording for instance to: "Social insurance as a method of mitigating the effects of the common hazards of modern life is limited by the . . ." will probably bring correct answers from the informed candidates.

It is also possible for an item to be non-discriminating to the opposite extreme. For example, every candidate may answer the question correctly because the keyed answer is the longest or the only one which uses the same terminology as the premise. Replacing the terms by synonyms and abbreviating the correct answer may make the item sufficiently difficult, so that the poorer candidates will fail to answer it. Thus, the item may become a useful tool for discrimination.

These instances show that discarded items may become useful if the original item count is reviewed. If only the correlation coefficient is considered in evaluating an item, without examining the cause for the low or negative figure, many items will be eliminated which could easily be revised.

Retention of Items

IF THE correlation coefficient is used as a basis for deciding whether an item should remain in the test, usually a value of plus .30 or more is regarded as indicating acceptable items.² However, among the items thus selected there will still be many which do not contribute much to the test result as a whole.

If the table of correlations computed by John C. Flanagan³ is examined, it can be seen how much variance there is in the figures on which a given correlation, for instance plus .40, is based. It may be found that an item answered correctly by 52% of the highest 27% of the candidates and 18% of the lowest 27% of the candidates will result in a coefficient of plus .40. Such an item, of course, is significant in contributing to the discrimination of the total test score.

However, a coefficient of plus .40 may also result from an item which was an-

² Edward Lee Thorndike and Others. *The Measurement of Intelligence*. (New York: Columbia Teachers College, 1927) p. 129.

³ Copied in *Public Personnel Review*, July, 1946, p. 129.

swered by 10% of the best candidates and 1% of the candidates with the lowest score. Such an item contributes little to the total test result. Besides, it can be assumed that its being answered correctly by any candidates at all was greatly due to chance. Close examination of such an item will usually determine whether the item should be eliminated, clarified, or otherwise made easier. It certainly should not remain in the examination unrevised merely because the count of correct answers showed a positive correlation with the examination as a whole.

According to Flanagan's table, the coefficient of plus .40 may, again, result from an item which was answered by 99% of the best candidates and by 90% of the poorest candidates. Such an item should not be retained in its original form because it is obviously too easy. A study of the item may suggest methods for making it more difficult and at the same time more discriminatory.

These examples show that even a positive coefficient should not, without further study, determine what disposition is to be made of an item. In deciding what to do about an item—whether to retain it, to change it, or to omit it—recourse must be taken to the original item count. Thus, to do an adequate evaluation of an item analysis, both the coefficient of correlation and the original item count must be inspected.

In the Louisiana Merit System we make our analyses by review of the item count only, and we have found that an effective improvement of examinations can be brought about this way. We try to retain only those items which have been answered by 30% more in the highest third than in the lowest third of the candidates participating. Robert L. Thorndike demonstrates graphically that the number of discriminations effected by an item is highest for items answered by from 25% to 75% of the candidates.⁴ While a median of 50% correct answers for an item would be ideal, this ideal usually cannot be reached, and if there is not a complete in-

ter-correlation between items, it is statistically impossible. The permissible difference between correct answers of above average and below average groups will depend upon the time available to correct and replace items. Thus, expediency will determine what margins the examiner will set for retaining an item as it is.

Some Examples of Item Count Analysis

SOME examples may show the experience we have had in the Louisiana Merit System with the result of item analyses on the basis of simple item counts. These examples were taken from analyses of our examinations for Welfare Visitors.

The examination of which the following items were a part was taken by 300 candidates. The papers were divided according to score into three equal groups: the lowest third, which happened to be identical with those who failed the examination; the middle group, which answered 70% through 83% of the items correctly; the upper group, which answered more than 83.0% of the items correctly. The distribution of total examination results was almost along the normal curve. The result of an item count for each of the three groups was transcribed with red, blue, and green pencil on the margin of the examination booklet.

Example No. 1

One way in which a rural community may differ from an urban one as a setting for the practice of social work is that

1. the whole neighborhood is more likely to be involved in the problem of the individual family.
2. the case worker has less need for a knowledge of psychiatric principles in case work.
3. a more thorough knowledge of rural sociology is essential for the case worker's success.
4. there are fewer problems of poverty and more problems of neglect.

The item count for the above item showed that out of the 100 best candidates only 52 had answered it correctly by marking choice number 1, of the middle group 45 had answered it, and of the failing candidates 34. The item was investigated for

⁴ Robert L. Thorndike, *Personnel Selection Test and Measurement Techniques* (New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1949) p. 229.

the possible cause of the lack of discrimination between the answers of the three groups. It was assumed that the reason might be that distractor 3 had some truth to it. It was changed to read: "3. a thorough knowledge of agriculture is essential for the caseworker's success."

The result of the item count after a sufficient number of candidates had taken the revised test showed that instead of 52%, 45% and 34% in the three groups now 90%, 80% and 54% respectively had answered it. While the difference was 18% between the best and the lowest at first, it had increased to 36% after the revision of distractor 3.

Example No. 2

The basic reason social workers give special attention to food as an item in the family budget is that

1. only by careful planning will assistance grants be sufficient to preserve health.
2. because of its relative size, food offers the greatest opportunity for economies.
3. mealtime is the center of family life among the poor.
4. persons on public assistance have little or no education.
5. the necessary daily caloric content can only be calculated by experts.

The item count resulted in 76%, 77%, 65% respectively, for the three groups. If a correlation coefficient had been computed, it would have been negative. It was assumed that the partial truth in answers 2 and 5 had misled the candidates. A detailed analysis of the answers given by the failing candidates might have confirmed this assumption. This was, however, not done because of the time needed for such computation.

The revised item reads as above with changes of two distractors as follows:

2. food offers the only opportunity of economies.
5. the necessary daily caloric content has to be established by the social worker.

The result of the count of the revised item showed that the assumption had been correct, since now 84%, 68% and 50% of the candidates had answered it correctly.

Example No. 3

The primary characteristic of a chronic disease is that it is

1. short and severe.
2. prolonged.
3. not critical.
4. recurrent.
5. painful.

It was assumed that since in many instances chronic diseases are recurrent, this had misled the informed candidates. The result of 49%, 53%, 49% respectively was changed to 94%, 68% and 60% by replacing distractor 4 by the words "always critical."

Example No. 4

Pneumothorax aids in the treatment of tuberculosis by

1. letting air into the lung.
2. completely resting one lung.
3. injecting a healing fluid into the lung.
4. completely resting both lungs simultaneously.
5. surgically removing infected spots.

The results of this item were changed from 55%, 35%, 19% to 72%, 44%, 16% correct answers for each of the three groups by simply omitting the first answer.

In these instances 100 test papers were available for each group, so that the item count corresponded to percent scores. However, if any other number of papers is counted and divided, the effectiveness of the result can be seen almost as readily by inspecting the original figures without computation of percent scores. All items previously used on Welfare Visitor examinations were thus analyzed and arranged according to subject matter and difficulty. On the basis of these findings, two forms, A and B, were prepared which were presumed to be parallel. These forms were given alternately, and after each form had been taken by approximately 200 candidates a distribution of scores was made with the following results: Form A showed a mean of 100.15 and a standard deviation of 20.35 and form B a mean of 100.45 and a standard deviation of 19.16 which justifies our as-

sumption that the forms were parallel and that the item count method of analysis produces the desired results.

The reliability of an item count review will, of course, be directly proportional to the number of papers available for investigation. If so few papers are available that it seems impractical to divide them into groups, a count of the total number of papers will be of some help. The number of correct answers can be transcribed on the margin of the test booklet in form of a fraction of the total candidates who took the test. Even though items with negative correlations cannot be identified this way, items which have been failed or passed by all or nearly all candidates can be found.

A close examination of the best candidates' papers can also be of help in determining which items have been failed by the best candidates although many of the poorer candidates have answered them correctly. The simplest method to use in analyzing individual responses is to tally the wrong answers of the papers to be investigated on an IBM answer sheet by crossing the bars on each wrong response. The correct answer should then be recorded with a red pencil on the same answer sheet. The items which have been failed, and also the particular wrong answers which were given, can easily be detected this way. This method has proved valuable for improving highly technical examinations taken by few candidates only. It has also been a useful device to select the most difficult items from several examinations in order to assemble exami-

nations for high administrative or supervisory positions.

Summary

SINCE methods of item analysis employing the use of correlation coefficients do not produce conclusive evidence of superiority over other methods applied to test revision, the value of the time-consuming statistical item analysis by correlation appears to be negligible compared with inspection of item counts for the type of achievement test with which public personnel agencies are concerned. The correlation coefficient is used to evaluate each item to distinguish between those candidates who score high or low on the total test. In applying it, items are eliminated which should be changed and items may be retained which are too difficult or too easy. The inspection of the original item count seems to give more valid results, besides being much less time consuming. Our technique seems justified on the basis of the opinion of an authority like J. P. Guilford who states that methods "without the respectable mathematical relationship are to be preferred if they work and demand less time"⁵ and on the admission by Robert L. Thorndike that the refined procedures which he describes "have probably never been given an adequate empirical trial" to estimate how much they can add to "rough and intuitive procedures of item selection."⁶ We believe our method can considerably improve upon intuitive selection.

⁵ *Psychometric Methods* (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1936), p. 427.

⁶ *Op. cit.*, p. 252.

CSA . . . of the United States and Canada

As a member of the United States Civil Service Commission, I have been able to observe at close range the admirable manner in which Canadians and the people of the United States cooperate to improve the standards of public service. The Civil Service Assembly of the United States and Canada provides channels through which groups interested in a civil-service improvement exchange ideas and results of research. I know that the activities of the members of this organization have been beneficial to the governments of both nations.—*Frances Perkins in address at International Day, Ottawa Exhibition, Ottawa, Canada, August 20, 1952.*

Selecting Administrators JOSEPH RECHETNICK and HAROLD LEVINE

APPPOINTMENTS and promotions in the civil service of the state of New York and all of the civil divisions thereof, including cities and villages, shall be made according to merit and fitness to be ascertained, as far as practicable, by examination, which as far as practicable, shall be competitive." Thus reads the so-called "civil service" provision of the Constitution of New York State.

For the most part, selection by examination is used for filling vacancies in lower levels of supervision and administration. But the examination technique is not generally considered as valid a method for filling higher level supervisory and administrative positions, particularly when the positions are filled by promotion. For example, in the hierarchy of clerical positions in New York City, civil service examines for five levels or grades.¹ The category of Grade 5 is at the top and has a set salary minimum but an unlimited salary maximum. Consequently, several Grade 5 Clerks may be eligible for consideration when a more responsible position is vacant. The selection is left to the officials of the department, for the local civil service commission has said in effect: "Beyond this point we do not go."

This article discusses the technique used by one of the larger governmental agencies to establish a priority list to fill a high administrative post.

Administrative Structure of Organization

THE AGENCY discussed here consists of a central office and a large number of independent units scattered throughout the city. Each unit is headed by an administrator who is responsible for the over-all operation of the unit subject to general

controls and policies established through the central office.

The duties of these unit administrators, generally known as Housing Managers, are officially described by the Civil Service Commission as follows:

Under general direction to: be responsible for the management of one or more housing projects or large slum-clearance sites, including the operation and maintenance of the physical plant, and the handling of tenant relations and community and recreational activities; supervise project personnel; secure public and private agency cooperation; plan the assignment of apartments and the collection of rents; prepare budget estimates and keep financial records and accounts; prepare reports; perform related work.

Eligible lists are established by competitive examinations which are both promotion and open. Eligibility in the promotion examination is open to employees with at least one year of service in the immediate lower title of Assistant Housing Manager. The minimum requirements for the open examination include some combination of college education and executive or administrative experience.

Originally, because of the relatively small number of independent projects, the organizational structure divided them into three main divisions, each headed by a chief. As the number of projects increased, it became necessary to impose a level of authority between the chief and the managers. The responsibility assigned to this intermediate administrative post, called the Supervising Manager, was delineated as:

Under general direction: to supervise management of specific projects in field, maintain efficient and economical operations; conduct inspections and submit reports; recommend appropriate changes in policies, procedures and methods; perform related work.

The initial selection of the Supervising Managers was simplified by the fact that it seemed obviously desirable to consider only managers, and there were relatively

¹ A proposal has been made to reclassify all New York City positions and establish classes with fixed salary ranges, from bottom to top, including the clerical series. Whether this proposal will be adopted is a moot question.

• JOSEPH RECHETNICK is Director of Personnel of the New York City Housing Authority.
• HAROLD LEVINE is Assistant Director.

few managers with full civil service status among whom to choose. The selections were therefore made by the head of the department of management with the advice of his chiefs. As more and more projects were constructed and more and more managers were hired from established civil service eligible lists, and as additional supervising managers were needed, the agency's executives realized that the selective process should be made more objective and thorough.

In discussing the approach to be followed, certain basic principles were established.

1. Because of the nature of the position, appreciable experience is needed to manage projects of the agency. Supervising managers, therefore, would be promoted from the ranks of managers.

2. In view of the uncertain provisional status of several of the managers, employees with full competitive civil service status as manager would be considered. This principle restricted the number of eligibles to less than thirty.

3. In so far as practicable, eligibles would be judged only on their experience and performance as managers within the agency.

4. To insure adequate review of experience and performance, a committee of selectors should be set up fully representative of the varied functions of managers.

Promotion Priority List Set Up

THE TECHNIQUE for establishing a priority list of supervising managers consisted of having a full round-table discussion on each eligible. The discussion was based on a set of criteria designed to cover each major aspect of the eligible's background, experience, and personal characteristics as evinced by experience. The selecting panel did not meet with the eligibles; selection was based solely on the individual panel member's experience with the eligibles.

In setting up the rating scale (see chart on page 174), it was agreed that the factors need not be weighed in the first instance. As matters turned out, weighting was not found necessary in determining the final ranking of the eligibles.

Committee Membership

THE SELECTING committee consisted of seven persons, representatives of the departments of Management, Control and Personnel. The representatives of Management included the Chiefs of the operating projects and the Chief of the Maintenance Division. All eligibles were well known to one or more of the Chiefs of the operating projects; the Chief of the Maintenance Division often had contact with the various eligibles on matters involving maintenance of the physical plant of the project.

The representative of the Control Department was familiar with the eligibles in his capacity as head of the Audit Division which reviewed the financial records of the project, its rental intake and expense charges. The Director of Personnel acted as Chairman of the committee in addition to presenting his own experience with the various eligibles' ability to handle personnel matters.

Rating of Candidates

AFTER discussing the meaning of the various terms used on the rating scale, the Committee measured the first candidate against each factor on the scale.² Having ironed out the differences, it was agreed to consider each candidate, in turn, from the point of view of negatives only.

Although few candidates were fully known to all seven members of the Committee, every candidate was known to several. As each candidate was presented, the question was put to the Committee in the following form: "Does anyone consider him not fully qualified for the position? If so, why?" After a member of the panel had raised a negative and presented his reasons, the Committee discussed the candidate and placed him in one of the two categories:

1. Fully qualified for Supervising Manager.
2. Not fully qualified for Supervising Manager.

Having considered each candidate, the

² To avoid any undue influence in the order of consideration of the candidates, the list was set up in alphabetical order. The complete personal history of each candidate was available.

NEW YORK CITY HOUSING AUTHORITY

RATING SCALE—SUPERVISING MANAGER

Candidate: _____ Title: _____ Location: _____

Very Good	Satisfactory	Unsatisfactory
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I. BACKGROUND AND EXPERIENCE*

A. Knowledge of Technical Aspects of the Manager's Job _____

B. Knowledge of the Administrative Aspects of the Manager's Job _____

C. Performance as Manager _____

II. PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS*

A. Interest and Initiative _____

B. Willingness to Accept Responsibility _____

C. Supervising Ability _____

D. Capacity for Growth and Ability to Develop (including flexibility and resourcefulness) _____

E. Extent of Intelligent Participation in Conferences _____

F. Ability to Deal Effectively with _____

1. Subordinates _____

2. Coordinates _____

3. Superiors _____

III. OVER-ALL EVALUATION

Ability to Handle the Job of Supervising Manager

Remarks: _____

As compared to _____ candidates I have considered for the position of Supervising Manager, this candidate would rank as No. _____

Outstanding	<input type="checkbox"/>	Date	Rater & Title
Examples of Unsatisfactory	<input type="checkbox"/>	performance as Manager: _____	

* Note Remarks on Reverse Side.

Committee reduced the field of fully qualified eligibles to five and recessed the session. It is interesting to note that the entire discussion at this first session took under three hours, and the time was considered well spent indeed. Rarely in this agency had so many potential administrators at this level been analyzed so thoroughly by so many executives acting in concert.

Ranking of Candidates

THE FINAL ranking of the five eligibles was left to a second session. As it turned out, the recess proved valuable. It gave each panel member a chance to review the eligibles and compare each with the others. Thus, the enthusiasm for one candidate or another developed at the initial meeting was considerably modified and tempered by a night's thinking. The result was a better balanced judgment when the actual rankings were determined.

The factors which disqualified most of the candidates were in order of frequency:

1. Inability to deal effectively with people.
2. Lack of initiative.
3. Inflexibility.
4. Excessive emotional approach to problems.

In several cases, where none of these factors, or any other was negative, the candidate was disqualified because his work was routine; there was nothing outstanding in his performance. The Committee agreed that if a candidate had done nothing beyond the necessary and ordinary during his years³ with the agency, he lacked that spark which was desirable for higher level administrative positions.

A similar approach was used in ranking the five fully qualified candidates. In each case the candidate's background, performance, and personal abilities were scrutinized closely. While all were rated positively on each of the factors, the question considered by the committee was the extent to which each departed from the ideal in any factor. By this technique it was

possible to separate the lower group from the upper. The bulk of the discussion then revolved about the final ranking of the upper group. The Committee agreed unanimously on the final rankings.

One important factor which influenced the Committee in its ranking was the absence of what, for want of a better word, was called "seasoning" for several of the candidates. Either they had not been around long enough or had not been confronted with enough major problems to have put them through the mill. One of the recommendations, therefore, was to train such eligibles by putting them in positions which would tend to eliminate this deficiency.

Conclusions About Selection Method

TIME will tell whether this method of selecting administrators will prove more valid than the use of the examination technique or the method of subjective selection. It is interesting to note that a guess-timate by one of the executives before the technique had been worked out included four of the five ultimately selected, and in a similar rank order. It would seem that the balanced judgment of a half dozen operating officials well versed in the technical field and fully cognizant of the judgment-and abilities of the supervisors should prove superior to the subjective selection technique. Furthermore, the examination technique which tests knowledge of subject matter, rather than will to perform, and which is woefully inadequate in measuring personal characteristics in action, rather than in embryo, does not appear to be as effective as a technique based on the candidate's experience of long standing.

One final observation is in order. Since the members of the panel were, in a sense, being rated in judgment by each of the others, personal biases seemed to be completely discarded in favor of an objective and forthright approach. The individual panel members were known to have their personal predilections, but they parked these outside the conference door and cooperated fully in helping to select the best list of administrators for the position of supervising manager.

³ Most of the candidates had at least 10 years' service with the agency and had come up through the ranks.

Promotion from Within WILLIAM G. TORPEY

WHETHER an agency should adopt a formal promotion program is often a perplexing issue for personnel officials to determine. And if the decision is yes, there is still the not always easy task of establishing formal promotion methods. Legislative provisions, civil service rules, custom, local personalities, and other factors may affect the formulation of promotion plans. As a matter of administrative choice, the issue sometimes appears to be, on the one hand, the creation of formal procedures which may be rigidly binding in all future promotion cases, or, on the other, the continuance of informal practices which, at least in the opinion of management, may seem proper.

Consideration of the creation of a formal promotion program brings forth certain objections. From the viewpoint of supervisors, it is sometimes feared that a formal promotion program may lead to turnover within an office at a rate detrimental to the best interests of the office. From the point of view of an employee, a promotion program may increase competition for better assignments and thus, through a broadened base of eligibility, reduce an individual employee's chance for advancement within the agency. From the viewpoint of an employee of another agency in the jurisdiction, such a program reduces the chances of "outsiders."

The advantages of a formal program, however, usually outweigh the objections occasionally raised. Some of the more important possible gains from a promotion program are:

1. It gives management an opportunity to make maximum use of a vital tool of personnel administration, namely, the promotion technique.
2. It provides a source of trained manpower for vacancies within an agency.
3. It reduces training time.

4. It tends to reduce agency turnover.

5. It affords a chance for employees to make known their availability for advanced responsibilities in an appropriate manner.

6. It gives employees an opportunity to participate in personnel management.

Setting

A BRIEF reference to the Naval Research Laboratory as an agency of government will provide a setting for the establishment of the promotion program discussed in this article. Specifically, the mission of the Laboratory, located in Washington, D. C., is to carry out basic and applied research for the purpose of increasing the effectiveness of the fleet. The Laboratory has been a pioneer in hundreds of scientific developments—in communications, in guided missiles, in hydraulic lubricants, in fire-fighting equipment—to name a few. By virtue of its extensive research program in the physical sciences, the Laboratory utilizes a wide variety of skills and its employees represent a series of occupations ranging from physicists engaged in fundamental research work to semi-skilled laborers doing maintenance work in connection with its dozens of buildings, wharfs, and experimental craft. The number of employees in individual occupations varies greatly. For example, there are about 600 electronic scientists, but there is only one ceramics engineer at the Laboratory. Of the approximately 3,500 employees, around one-third of the total personnel of the Laboratory are professional and sub-professional; one-third administrative and clerical; and one-third skilled and semi-skilled artisans. Any effective promotion program must be geared to this heterogeneous group of occupations.

Formulation of Plan

PREPARATORY to drawing up an initial draft of a promotion plan, consideration was given to the Navy Department's general policy on promotion which includes the following objectives: (1) the selection of the best qualified persons available to

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fill vacancies, (2) opportunity for the progressive development of employees, (3) a high level of employee performance and satisfaction, and (4) the retention of capable employees. Provisions of existing promotion programs in government as well as in selected industrial organizations were studied. Employees, supervisors, employee group organizations, and others at the Laboratory were asked for comments. As a result, a preliminary promotion plan was devised and followed informally for ten months during 1951 and 1952. During this time careful attention was given to the operation of the plan.

Certain phases of the preliminary promotion plan proved unworkable in practice. Thus, the use under certain circumstances of veto power by a supervisor of an employee who was eligible for promotion tended to block individual advancement. Further, the provision that employees were not required to file an application in order to receive consideration proved time consuming as well as ineffective since some employees contacted did not want to be considered for positions outside of their own unit. Additional discussions were held with interested groups of employees, supervisors, administrators, and representatives of the Civil Service Commission. Several helpful ideas were obtained from these sources. Successive drafts of the plan were modified as experiences and suggestions were received and evaluated. The ultimate outcome was the formulation by the Personnel Officer of a final plan which was approved and is now in operation.

Provisions of Plan

THE Laboratory is organizationally divided into nineteen divisions—twelve scientific and seven administrative. If a division wishes to fill a position by promotion from within the division, it must consider all employees who are eligible for promotion to the position in question. This consideration is given either in a formal manner, such as through action of a division promotion board, or in an informal manner by action of individual supervisors. Upon selection by a division of an individual to be promoted from within its

ranks, a personnel form is submitted to the Personnel Division. This form contains a statement to the effect that all employees of the division eligible for the promotion were considered. Upon receipt of the form with the statement referred to above, the Personnel Division effects the promotion provided the employee meets the minimum Civil Service Commission standards. It is not necessary, however, to consider other eligibles in the event that the promotion is a result of reallocation of the incumbent's position because of redescription of the duties which he is performing.

In cases where a division does not nominate one of its own employees, a notice of the vacancy is posted on specified Laboratory bulletin boards, provided that either the division submitting the personnel form requests such notice or the Personnel Division believes that there may be eligibles currently employed at the Laboratory. The notice contains: (1) a brief description of the duties of the position; (2) a statement of the minimum qualification requirements as found in the Civil Service Commission standards for the position, plus any additional qualifications established at the request of the division; and (3) the organizational location of the vacancy. The notice indicates the period during which applications will be accepted by the Personnel Division. This period usually is one week from the date of the posting of the notice.

Any employee in the Laboratory who believes he is qualified under the Civil Service Commission standards for the vacancy in question may submit an application form to the Personnel Division during the period allotted for filing. After the Personnel Division ascertains the names of the applicants who meet the minimum requirements and are eligible for the promotion, the applications are forwarded to the division in which the vacancy exists. If the division desires to interview any of the applicants, the Personnel Division is notified, and arrangements are made for the interview. If the division in which the vacancy exists concludes that none of the applicants is qualified for the position, the Personnel Division is notified, and a cer-

tificate of eligibles is requested from the appropriate Civil Service Commission office. In any event, the final selection to fill the vacancy is made by the division in which the vacancy exists. After selection is made, the Personnel Division informs all applicants that the position has been filled.

There is no limit to the number of individual vacancies for which an employee may file. No consideration (outside of his own division) is given to an employee who does not file an application form for a particular vacancy. In the event that an employee of the Laboratory is leaving the Washington area either on a field trip or on leave and wishes to be notified of any promotion notices posted during his absence, he may notify the Personnel Division, leaving an indication of the grades and occupations of positions for which he would be interested and providing a self-addressed stamped envelope to be used to notify him of any promotion notices which may be posted. While the filling of positions is not delayed pending the receipt of applications from absent employees, the designated closing date for receipt of applications is waived for applications mailed under the foregoing procedure. Obviously, applicants do not receive consideration if the vacancy sought has already been filled at the time a delayed application is received.

Results

IT APPEARS that the promotion program developed by the Naval Research Laboratory is well accepted by management and employees. The number of considerations given to employees before selections are made is comparatively high. Interest, as expressed by the number of applications received, is sustained. Thus far during the operation of the formal promotion program outlined above, the records indicate that on a monthly basis an average of ninety-one Laboratory employees are promoted—either within their divisions or to a position in another division of the Laboratory. Furthermore, a monthly average of twelve promotion announcements are posted, as provided by the plan. Typically, the results of posted notices are: (1)

Two announcements are cancelled for administrative reasons. (2) Two announcements do not draw applications from Laboratory employees and outside recruitment is necessary. (3) Three announcements draw Laboratory applications but no one is selected and eligibles from outside of the Laboratory are subsequently sought. (4) Four announcements draw Laboratory applications and the applicants meet the requirements and are promoted to the vacancies. (5) Usually in one case after posting a vacancy the division finds an employee in its own ranks who is given the job.

In other words, thus far, on a monthly basis, four out of twelve announcements promulgated under the promotion program result in selection of employees who otherwise presumably would not have been considered for the vacancies and hence would not have been selected.

Conclusions

REFLECTION upon the installation and operation of the formal promotion program of the Naval Research Laboratory results in a reemphasis of certain basic promotion principles. It is suggested that these principles constitute the foundation for the analysis of any promotion plan.

1. A promotion program should be tailored to meet the specific needs of an individual agency.
2. The initial competitive area should be the organizational unit in which the employee works.
3. Promotion standards should be fairly and uniformly applied.
4. A promotion plan should be simple, both with respect to its understanding by employees and with respect to its application.
5. The plan should be committed to writing and disseminated in convenient form among all employees of an agency.
6. During formulation of a plan, opportunity should be afforded to employees to comment, criticize, and make recommendations.
7. Periodic evaluation should be made of the effectiveness of a promotion program.

The Check-Off List As a Training Tool

H. R. CHARMAN

HUMAN proneness to overlook detail has been recognized in some job situations. The airline pilot, for example, goes through an elaborate ritual before each take-off. Item by item, his preparation for flight is checked against a printed list. No item is checked off until proper performance is assured. Nothing is assumed or left to chance. By such attention to detail, airlines are able to produce millions of accident-free passenger-miles each year.

A check-off list is very effective in such a work situation. In a training situation where the employee is under the close physical control of his instructor it is equally effective. Because of technical difficulties and human tendencies to do things the "easy" way, it seems to have been overlooked as an aid to decentralized, or field training. Field training as used here means on-the-job training which is not under the continuous supervision of formal instructors.

Field training is a continuous process, carried on by all members of the organization who have more knowledge or skill than the new member. Recruits may even train newer recruits. This decentralization of training, like any other organizational decentralization, presents the problems of coordination, evaluation, and control.

The check-off list presupposes proper teaching methods. The purpose of a training check-off list is to make sure the new employee has been shown what to do (in detail), how to do it (in detail), and can demonstrate his ability to perform as required. It goes further than checking basic skills. It breaks the basic skills into their fine points, the "tricks of the trade" which make for efficient operation. It recognizes the proneness to overlook the trees that make up a forest.

How much does the new employee know? How much should he know? How rapidly is he progressing? Is he responsible for his mistakes, or was he misinformed? Is his excuse, "Nobody ever told me about that" a valid one? Should he be replaced by someone who can "catch on" faster? Has he progressed to the point where he is ready for assignment to a specific job with fair expectation of success?

Those are a few of the many questions a supervisor must ask himself when he is making a probation report or selecting a man for an assignment. Under a system of hit-or-miss training, he cannot answer them accurately.

How To Set Up a Check-Off System

THE NEED for some systematic method for training evaluation is apparent. The requirements of such a system are: (a) It must be simple to administer. (b) It must be written. (c) It must be available to the trainee, his field instructor(s) and his supervisor. (d) It must be coordinated with the formal training, if any; or take the place of formal training, if necessary. A check-off list can be manufactured to fill these requirements.

The need was felt, and this device manufactured to fill it in a Police Department; but the problems, and the method of solving them, are similar in any on-the-job training situation; in any occupation; in either public service or private industry.

There are four steps to be taken to fit the check-off list to training situations, and specifically, to field training situations.

The First Step is to make a job analysis; to determine the skills, knowledges, and attitudes necessary to proper job performance.

Step Two is to break each technique down into all the minor details that make for efficiency or are necessary for efficient performance. Every point should be listed.

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Every tool, every technique must be listed in minute detail. Each point must be covered and recorded so it is not overlooked. The only "assumption" permitted is that the new employee must be taught everything, that he knows nothing at all about the job. For example, one of the first things a Police recruit must know is how to use the available communications. Therefore, "How to use communications" is broken down into:

1. How to pull a call box.
 - a. Emergency pull.
 - b. Routine call-in.
 - c. To desk Sergeant.
2. How to use the telephone.
 - a. Emergency call.
 - b. Routine call-in.
 - c. To specific offices.
 - d. Inter-office calls from inside phones.
 - e. To get 'outside' lines from station locals.
3. How to use Police Radio.
 - a. Transmitter.
 - b. Receiver.
4. Why routine calls are necessary.
 - a. Self-protection.
 - b. Supervision.
 - c. To receive latest information.

The Third Step is to make a rough determination of the importance of the knowledge, skill, or attitude, relative to time on the job. The material should be arranged so that it follows a generally progressive pattern from the things the new employee must know before he can go to work, through the routine operations he must perform daily, weekly, and monthly as he becomes a working member of the organization. (For example, "How to make a Daily Report" is listed first in the "How to make Reports" breakdown because that is the first report a Police recruit must learn to make.)

Step Four involves compiling the breakdown lists into a form that is:

1. Compact and easily carried by the trainee.
2. Sufficiently wear-resistant to stand up under the rigors of the job for which it is designed.
3. Available to the trainee's supervisor or other instructor(s) at all times.
4. Controlled from a central point.

Requirements 1, 2, and 3 (for Police recruits) are met as follows:

A booklet is issued to each recruit as part of his departmental-issue equipment. Commercially printed booklets have the advantage of compactness, but are not as adaptable or easily changed or revised as home-made ones and are much more expensive. A three by five loose-leaf binder is compact enough to fit into a shirt pocket and may be easily revised or adapted to different training situations. Three by five inch file cards make excellent fillers and stand up under wear-and-tear.

Information from the breakdown lists is printed, duplicated, or mimeographed on the cards in the following form:

<i>How to Use Communications</i>	<i>Show</i>	<i>Do</i>
<i>Pull a Call Box:</i>		
Emergency.....		
Routine.....		
To Desk Sgt.....		
<i>Use Telephone:</i>		
Emergency.....		
Routine.....		
Specific Offices.....		
Inter-Office.....		
Outside Lines.....		
<i>Use Police Radio:</i>		
Transmitter.....		
Receiver.....		
<i>Why Routine Calls Are Necessary:</i>		
Self-Protection.....		
Supervision.....		
Receive Information.....		

"Why" items are included in the lists chiefly for the instructor's use, but the "Show" and "Do" columns can still be checked off, the former when the instructor explains and the latter when the trainee demonstrates his ability to perform and can show that he knows "Why" it must be done that way.

Requirement 4, the central control detail, is accomplished by printing forms on 8½ × 11" paper (see copy of form on pages 181-182) with the same information, in the same order, as the fillers in the booklet. A set of these forms is stapled to a file jacket which is kept by the recruit's Commanding Officer or Supervisor in an accessible location. This jacket becomes a working personnel file, available at all

NAME DOAKS, Joe DATE APPOINTED 5-1-51 BADGE NUMBER 678

Indoctrination Item	Counselor	Indoctrination Item	Counselor
Oath of Office		TOUR OF PISTOL RANGE (continued)	
Presentation of Equipment		Shoot sidearms	
Introduction to Manual, pages 45-75		Explain why reloads not for service	
EXPLAIN:		Explain firearms training course, tentative date, scope	
Counseling Group			
DISCUSS:			
Hours of Work		TOUR OF COURTS	
Work Week		District Attorney's Office	
Days Off		Superior Courts	
Pay Days		Municipal Courts	
Sick Leave		City Prosecutor's Office	
Vacation		Sheriff's Office, County Jail	
Compensation Insurance		FBI Office	
Retirement Information			
Pension Information		CHECK-OFF OF EQUIPMENT	
Relief Association		Required—Furnished by Recruit:	
Death Benefits		Cap	
EXPLAIN:		Shirts (2)	
The Role of the Policemen		Trousers (2)	
Conduct in Public and Neighborhood		Tie, black, four-in-hand	
Miscellaneous Police Services		Shoes, black, plain toe cap	
Cooperation with Other Departments		Socks, black or navy blue	
Introduce to Training Director		Belt, trousers, regulation	
Explain Police Training School		Belt, Sam Browne	
Recruit Training		Holster, type optional	
In-Service Training		Ammunition pouch	
Library		Handcuff case	
Monthly Bulletin		Key ring	
TOUR OF STATION		Belt Stays	
Business Office		Flashlight, pen and pencil	
Detective Division		Optional—Furnished by Recruit:	
Vice Squad		Leather Jacket, regulation	
Juvenile Bureau		Scarf, black or navy blue, plain	
Bail Office		Sap, pocket and/or palm sap	
Traffic Division		Watch	
Municipal Court, Dept. No. 5		Gloves	
Records Division		Hip boots	
Crime and Photo Laboratory		Required Equipment—	
Emergency Hospital		Furnished by Recruit	
Jail		Handcuffs	
Squad Room, Lockers, Showers		Rain Gear (By November First)	
Bowling Alley and Gym		Raincoat, type-color-optional	
Watch Captain's Office, Patrol		Cap Cover	
Arsenal		Footwear, optional	
Emergency Equipment Lockers		Required Equipment—	
TOUR OF FIELD		Furnished by Department	
Area Served		Gun, revolver, Colt or Smith	
Beat Layout		Ammunition, 20 rounds	
Field Activities		Call box key	
Lifeguard Station		Badge and Cap piece	
La Jolla Division—Sub-station		Whistle	
TOUR OF PISTOL RANGE		Night stick	
Introduce to Range Officer		Notebook, Officer's Field note	
Tour the Grounds-clubhouse		Notebook, Check-off list	
Explain Pistol Club		Identification Card	
Lecture on Firearms Safety		Flashlight batteries	
Explain Sidearm		Equipment required to be carried off duty or in civilian clothes	
Demonstrate Quick-draw Shooting		Badge	
Demonstrate Firing Courses		Box key	
		Identification Card	
		Gun, department issue, or own pistol or revolver. Not less than .38 Cal.	

they operate. He then performs the operations necessary to open the box. He makes a call to the operator, going through all motions slowly and explaining them as he does them. He notifies the operator that the box is being used for instruction purposes (so she won't send help to that box when it is pulled "Emergency") and hangs up the phone and closes the box. The trainee then goes through the same motions, makes a call, talks and listens to the operator (so he will know how the receiver sounds), and hangs up and closes the box.

If the recruit has performed this process properly, the next step is taken; if he has not, more instruction is given until he can perform properly. The next step, pulling a box "Emergency," is performed by the instructor and duplicated by the trainee. The final step is for the trainee to make a call from the box to the Desk Sergeant. This last combines the application and test steps of the lesson. If the trainee performs satisfactorily, his training is complete on this item. The instructor then initials and dates the "Show" and "Do" columns opposite the appropriate items. From that time on, the recruit is held responsible for proper performance.

The instructor returns to the station with the trainee and shows him the Gamewell Board tape which has recorded the box pulls, notifies the operator that the box is back in service. He also shows the trainee how the calls are logged by the operator and answers the numerous questions about the Gamewell System.

More complicated techniques necessitate a different treatment, but the basic four-step method of teaching is used. Every effort is made to break techniques down into units that can either be completed in one lesson, or if not, the preparation and presentation steps can be completed in one contact and the "Show" column checked off, leaving the application and test steps for another contact. The application and test steps are signed off in the "Do" column.

It may appear that such attention to detail is an overelaboration of the obvi-

ous; that anyone with normal intelligence can learn minor details on his own. However, trial-and-error training is wasteful and carries with it the likelihood of developing improper habit patterns which may have to be unlearned later.

No matter what type of business or occupation a new employee enters; or how skilled he is in a particular trade, craft, or profession; there are still routine processes or techniques peculiar to that particular employment situation which he must learn if he is to fit into the organization and become an efficient worker.

It is good business to recognize human failings and do something constructive about them. It costs less to train a new employee in the details than to leave it to him to learn them by trial and error.

Control and Evaluation of Progress

CONTROL is maintained and "cribbing" prevented by holding the trainee responsible for proper performance of the techniques checked off in both the "Show" and "Do" columns. Stalling and evading responsibility are discouraged by making it known that progress ratings will reflect the trainee's learning progress; that assignment to jobs is made on the basis of matching the acquired knowledges, skills, and attitudes (as evidenced by progress on the check-off list) against the requirements of the assignment. The best control, however, is inherent. The trainee himself is anxious to complete his training and attain the status of a polished performer.

Coordination

COORDINATION with formal or classroom training is simple. Anything taught in the classroom is checked off in the "Show" column by the classroom instructor. The "Do" column is checked off in the field as the trainee demonstrates his ability to perform satisfactorily.

Advantages of a Check-Off System

1. Saves time in field training. Systematic training assures a more rapid progress of the trainee; recorded accomplishment avoids duplication of effort of field instructors. To select a topic for instruction,

a field instructor has only to ask for the recruit's booklet and either arbitrarily select an item which he feels most qualified to teach, or, ask the trainee to pick out one of the techniques that he needs most to be taught.

2. Assures complete, well-rounded field training. Makes sure all the "details" are covered and that standards are maintained in the transfer of knowledge from the expert to the novice. Prevents a loss of techniques and details.

3. Stimulates the trainee to learn; presents a challenge, gives him a definite goal. Stimulates older employees to brush up on their techniques, knowledges, and attitudes in order to be prepared to answer the trainee's "Why?" and "How?"

4. Leads to a better rapport between the newcomer and the oldtimer. Gives the oldtimers more interest in the recruit's future by the implied responsibility for his success. Exploits the psychological truths that if you would make a friend, ask a favor of him; if you want to compliment a man, admire his skills.

5. Widens the span of control of the trainee's supervisor. Makes all qualified members of the organization available as instructors, yet focuses control and coordination in a single responsible person.

6. Fixes responsibility. Operates as a check on alibis. "Nobody told me" can be checked against the record.

7. Is a positive indication of the trainee's progress, his interest and learning ability. Helps supervisors evaluate the trainee and answer the question: "Will this new employee become an asset to the organization, or should he be replaced?"

8. Is a basis for intelligent assignment of manpower; to the advantage of both the individual (assignment to a job for which he is prepared and can expect, and be expected, to experience success) and to the assignment.

9. Can be administered to an heterogeneous group. Trainees with differing amounts of service, learning ability and interest can be processed from the same general assignment. The training fits the individual. The supervisor does not have the burden of keeping a mental inventory

or an elaborate set of books of what he has taught, to whom, and what is next. The bookkeeping is practically self-administered.

10. Shows up the areas in which standardized procedures and work simplification methods are needed and can be developed. Indicates phases of the job in which procedure manuals could be profitably developed.

11. Such a system lends itself to use in small organizations which have no formal training program. It may be used in lieu of such formal training. Smaller police departments, for example, lacking the facilities for, or access to, a formal training program, can coordinate the check-off list with a carefully prepared reading list. Theory and practice can be combined very effectively in this manner.

12. The check-off list can be adapted to train in specialized duties. In a police department, for example, lists may be prepared to develop officers in the methods, techniques, and attitudes they must learn to become competent jail crew members, accident investigators, records bureau workers, or detectives.

Cost of Developing the Check-Off List

THE ORIGINAL cost of such a set-up is nominal. The cost-per-trainee is in inverse ratio to the number trained.

Cost is divided between the supplies and materials and the manhours spent in job breakdown and designing and printing the forms.

For reasons of economy and control, the booklets should remain the property of the organization. They are turned back at the end of the training period and can be reissued.

The cost of supplies and materials for the setup described here was \$2.00 per man. The loose-leaf binders cost \$1.25 each and remain the property of the department.

Approximately eighty man-hours were needed. The man-hours were donated. Had the organization's time been used, the first booklet would have cost \$202.00.

It is suggested that if such a system is developed on company time the best re-

turn on the investment is likely to be obtained by presenting the problem to the supervisors as a challenge; having them develop the detail breakdown in conference. Several benefits accrue from this.

First, the subject matter will probably be covered more completely, and more tricks-of-the-trade will be included by exploiting a wider field of knowledge. Second, there will be a broadening of the individual supervisors by a painless training process. Third, they will do some thinking along lines which have been long-neglected. Fourth, it will make them better instructors. Finally, the system will be their baby, and they will make more of an effort to see that it works.

No scientific evidence exists to back up the contention that this system is more efficient and effective than the hit-or-miss, trial-and-error method of field training new personnel. Like Topsy, it "just

grewed" out of a pressing need in a peculiar situation.

The only evaluation possible so far is by inference. Top management approved it; supervisors use and think well of it; oldtimers comment: "Those books are all right. I had to learn too many of the things on those lists the hard way. I'd have been a better officer, quicker, if there had been something like that when I first came on the job." Final approval is from men recently through their probation, who say: "Gee, I wish we'd had that when we were rookies."

This system is not proposed as a cure-all for training ills or expansion pains. It is suggested as another training aid, a tool for decreasing training costs and increasing training effectiveness.

It is admittedly nothing new, only an old training device dressed up and given mobility. Perhaps the only thing to be said in its behalf is: "It works."

Notes and Comments

(Continued from facing page 161)

nearly one and one-half years that the firemen's amendment has existed, the union has not requested its employment. No attempt has been made to use the provision in order to interfere with day-to-day management of the department. Conjecturally, however, the union may be waiting to make the legal test on a major issue.)

Certainly the strongest argument *against* arbitration is to be found in the essentially unaccountable status of the arbitration team. Settlement made by this technique definitely does violence to the traditional theory of an integrated executive structure—and responsibility is a keystone of democratic government. The British people, who can hardly be called advocates of irresponsibility, have circumvented this problem by demanding socially-conscious behavior by management, labor, and arbiters alike. Whether this country has matured enough to meet similar standards of performance is perhaps debatable.

It must be noted, however, that should an arbitration team behave irresponsibly, it is not true that its actions are "not subject to review

by the public." Public helplessness in the face of capricious action is not a characteristic of democracy. Several checks are available. First, the arbitration amendment can be repealed by the same voters who adopted it. This may not prove easy—a costly propaganda campaign might be required, with no guarantee of success. Secondly, a more simple solution is available by procuring a legislative act prohibiting the use of arbitration in such circumstances. Under Michigan law, such an act would, in effect, repeal the charter amendment and is easier to obtain than action by the voters. Thirdly, an irresponsible action probably could be compensated for by the simple expedient of having the Common Council refuse to appropriate the needed funds or grant needed authorization. True, the amendment says it "shall be the duty" of the mayor and council to do so. Yet, while there appears to be no clear and definite precedent and prediction is therefore impossible, it is not at all certain that mandamus would lie if resort were made to the courts. (See, McQuillin, *Municipal Corporations* (third edition), Chap. 51.) Under those circumstances, the refusal of the council

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Special Examining Committees for Personnel Director Recruitment . . .

LLOYD M. SHORT
and KENNETH C. TOLLENAAR

IN THE selection of the executive head of a central personnel agency there are three interests to be satisfied: those of the agency, the public, and the public personnel profession. The peculiar interests and needs of the agency are usually satisfied by permitting it to make the final choice from a number of qualified candidates. In an effort to secure representation of the interests of the public and the public personnel profession in the selection of a personnel director, many agencies have appointed special examining committees consisting of persons other than employees of the agency concerned. The special examining committee is differentiated from the usual oral rating board by the fact that it participates in the entire examination process, rather than just one phase of it.

Survey Made of Use of Examining Committees

A SURVEY recently completed by the Public Administration Center of the University of Minnesota on the use of special examining committees in the selection of personnel directors was designed to determine the extent to which these committees have been used, their organization and functions, and their relative efficiency.¹ Questionnaires were sent to one hundred and ten jurisdictions, and replies were received from ninety-four. One hundred and seven personnel director appoint-

ments were reported by the responding agencies, of which sixty-six were the result of an open competitive examination. Of the sixty-six open competitive examinations, thirty-three were conducted by special examining committees and thirty-three were conducted by the civil service commission, chief executives, other civil service agencies, personnel consultants, or special public agencies such as the California Division of Cooperative Personnel Services. Data compiled from the questionnaires were divided into two periods for purposes of comparison: (1) examinations and appointments occurring before 1946, and (2) those occurring between 1946 and 1951. Comparisons could thus be made between prewar and postwar examinations.

Legal requirements specifying the use of the special examining committee in the selection of personnel directors were found in only thirteen of the agencies surveyed, and two of these provisions have not yet been put to use. Therefore, in only eleven examinations was the use of the special examining committee a legal requirement; in two-thirds of the examinations the committee was used voluntarily. The earliest statute requiring the use of a special examining committee was adopted by New Jersey in 1930. Wisconsin adopted such a provision in 1935, and six more were passed between 1939 and 1942. The last such legal provision to be adopted was in Hartford, Connecticut in 1947.

The popularity of the special examining committee reached its height in the late 1930's. The President's Committee on Administrative Management recommended in 1937 that the new "nonpolitical" federal personnel administrator should be selected by an open competitive examination "administered by a special committee of highly qualified examiners." Model civil service laws published by vari-

¹ The initial work on this study was done by Dorothy E. Woodford (Mrs. George W. Cooper), Principal Personnel Examiner of the Kansas City, Missouri, Personnel Department, when she was a graduate student and research assistant in the Public Administration Center in 1945-46.

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• KENNETH C. TOLLENAAR was a graduate student and Research Assistant in the Public Administration Center in 1951-52.

ous organizations have incorporated special examining committee provisions into their recommendations since 1922. In recent years, however, recommendations for special examining committees have been dropped in favor of stronger executive control of the appointment of the personnel director.

Extent of Use of Committees

As indicated by Table I, special examining committees have been used less frequently in recent years. This declining frequency cannot be attributed to a similar decline in the number of examinations. The proportion of examinations using special examining committees to the total number of reported examinations dropped from 65 percent in the pre-1946 period to 27 percent in the period 1946 to 1951.

Organization of the Committee

THE VARIETY of occupations represented on special examining committees covered in the survey is indicated in Table II. It

TABLE I.
FREQUENCY OF USE OF SPECIAL
EXAMINING COMMITTEES

Year	No. of Examinations
1924	1
1932	1
1936	1
1939	3
1940	0
1941	8
1942	5
1943	3
1944	2
1945	2
1946	1
1947	0
1948	4
1949	1
1950	0
1951	1
Total	33

should be noted that although public personnel administrators were represented more frequently than any other group, they served on only slightly more than one-half of all committees. On only nine

TABLE II.
COMPOSITION OF SPECIAL EXAMINING COMMITTEES

	No. of Committees
<i>Committees containing a majority of members in one category:</i>	
Majority technical public personnel administrators	9
Majority businessmen other than private personnel workers	3
Majority academic	2
Majority former civil service commissioners of own jurisdiction	1
Total Committees Containing a Majority in One Category	15
<i>All Committees: representation for following categories:</i>	
Technical public personnel administrators	19
Academic (including one high school teacher)	18
Personnel workers, private business	7
Businessmen, other than personnel workers in private business	6
Nonpersonnel officials of own jurisdiction	5
Civil service commissioners, other jurisdictions	4
Civil service commissioners, own jurisdiction	4
Directors of bureaus of governmental research or equivalent	4
Attorneys and judges	3
Officials of citizen civil service associations	3
City superintendents of schools	3
Nonpersonnel officials of other jurisdictions	2
Industrial relations specialists, private business	2
Businessmen, former civil service commissioners, own jurisdiction	1
Businessmen, former civil service commissioners, other jurisdiction	1
Labor representatives	1
Club woman	1
Departmental adjutant, American Legion	1
Businessman, former public personnel director	1
Personnel consultant	1
Public school psychologist	1

of the thirty-three committees did they constitute a majority.

The appointing authority for twenty-six of the thirty-three committees was the civil service commission (or equivalent body). Chief Executives appointed five committees. Twelve committees were selected on the basis of their "knowledge, interest, and sympathy with the merit system" as demonstrated by such factors as experience, leadership in the field, etc., and the members of four additional committees were selected on these grounds plus residence and/or familiarity with the community and the needs of the jurisdiction. Sixteen of the agencies surveyed did not specify the criteria according to which committee members were chosen.

Twenty-three of the committees had three members each, although the range was between two and eight. The median total cost of the committee was between \$150 and \$200, but there was great variation, depending mainly upon the size of the fee paid to committee members. Members of about one-third of the committees received no fee, and payments to members of the remainder were about equally split between per diem and lump sum fees, but in only nine committees were all members compensated. Members of nineteen committees were paid traveling and hotel expenses.

Committee Functions

DETAILED data on committee powers and scope of work are available only for the seven committees used since 1946. While this number is too small to warrant generalizations about the use of special examining committees in general, interesting trends are evident in the data at hand.

It appears, for instance, that even when special examining committees are used the regular civil service commission and staff continue to make important examination decisions. Although laws usually provide that the special examining committee shall have the "same powers and duties . . . as are vested in . . . the director under provision of this act," or that it shall "determine its own examining procedure and requirements," in actual practice, at least since 1946, there has been a consid-

erable division of labor between the committee and the commission. For example, respondents were asked to indicate which of five types of minimum requirements (education, experience, age, sex, and residence) were determined by the committee and which were not. Replies varied between that of one agency whose committee made none of these decisions and one agency whose committee made all of these decisions, subject to the approval of the civil service commission. Five of the seven post-1946 committees, however, determined education and experience requirements, while the commission usually determined age, sex, and residence. Only three of the seven post-1946 committees determined the length of the recruiting period and the number of examination centers was determined by only three.

Decisions on the examination proper reveal the same sort of division of labor. Of the four post-1946 committees using a written examination, only one actually prepared the items. Of the five committees using formal evaluations of experience and training, only three prepared the summary statements defining the various grades of experience and training. Committees for only two of the five examinations having definite parts and weights made the decision as to what the parts and weights should be, although one more made a recommendation on this matter to the commission. The oral rating form used was determined by three of the seven committees.

Evaluation

THE METHOD used to evaluate the special examining committee was to list six areas or dimensions of examinations and to compare, according to these dimensions, examinations utilizing the committee with other examinations. The major dimensions selected were:

1. Organization for the examination.
2. Minimum requirements.
3. Publicity.
4. Examination content.
5. Applicants.
6. Appointees.

Within each of these dimensions several

criteria were listed. Minimum requirements, for instance, were compared with respect to: (1) whether or not they were established formally, (2) length of residence required, (3) amount and kind of education required, (4) amount and kind of experience required, and (5) age limits.

Relatively few important differences were found between examinations conducted by special examining committees and examinations conducted by commissions or otherwise. Only for the following criteria were major differences found:

1. *Residence requirements:* 76 percent of the examinations conducted by special examining committees waived residence requirements, while only 48 percent of those conducted by other means were without residence requirements.

2. *Publicity:* Examinations conducted by special examining committees tended to be more widely publicized than those conducted by other means.

3. *Number of written examination centers:* 71 percent of the written examinations conducted by special examining committees were held at more than one location, while only 30 percent of those otherwise conducted were held at more than one location.

4. *Number of applications received:* An average of 48.5 applications per examination was reported by special examining committees and 41 per examination by other methods.

5. *Expenses of candidates:* 30 percent of the examinations conducted by special examining committees made some provision for the payment of candidates' expenses, while only 15 percent of the examinations otherwise conducted made such provision.

6. *Experience of appointee:* In 76 percent of the examinations conducted by special committees the appointee had some public personnel experience, while in only 52 percent of the examinations conducted by other means did the appointee have public personnel experience.

A distinct pattern is evident in the above data: the first five criteria for which an important difference was found all have to do with the amount of effort directed toward securing the largest possible number of qualified applicants. Moreover, they comprise the whole list of criteria established which were related to this aspect of the examinations. One of two inferences may be drawn from this observation: (1)

Either special examining committees tend to conduct a more extensive and intensive search for suitable candidates than do the regular agency authorities, or (2) if the regular agency authorities have decided to conduct a large-scale examination, where discretionary power exists, they are more likely to use a special examining committee than they otherwise would be. In view of the data on the division of labor between the committee and the commission discussed above, it seems that the latter inference would be the more accurate.²

But the most significant conclusion to be drawn from the survey as a whole is that in general the use of the special examining committee does not produce results different from those produced by other methods of conducting examinations.³ Listed above are only six of the several criteria subsumed under the major dimensions studied in the survey. No significant differences attributable to the use of the special committee were found for the following criteria:

² Of the five criteria related to the amount of effort put forth to secure a large number of qualified applicants, the crucial one is, of course, the number of applications received. The difference between the mean of 48.5 applications per examination for special examining committees and 41 per examination for other methods is not statistically significant at the 5 percent level. Because all five criteria showed differences in favor of the special examining committee, however, the conclusion that special examining committees tend to be associated with large-scale examinations seems justified.

³ The majority of significant differences revealed by the survey were attributable, not to use or non-use of special examining committees, but to the time factor. Many of the criteria reflected changes in practice since the war. Of those examinations from which an appointment of a person with public personnel experience was made, for instance, 50 percent before 1946 resulted in the appointment of a person with previous experience in the agency, while the percentage declined to 28 per cent in the post-1946 period. Other time differences were:

Criterion	% of Examinations	
	Pre-1946	Post-1946
Civil service commission acted as appointing authority for director	63	50
Examinations without residence requirements	58	69
Used written examination	80	58
Used multiple choice items only	25	60
Used oral test and evaluation of experience and training only	20	42
Appointment made from number one position on list	30	50

1. Organization for the examination.
 - (a) Length of time taken to complete work on examination.⁴
2. Minimum requirements.
 - (a) Median education requirement.
 - (b) Median experience requirement.
 - (c) Age requirements.
3. Examination content.
 - (a) Number of examinations using written test.
 - (b) Number of examinations using oral test.
 - (c) Number of examinations using evaluation of experience and training.
 - (d) Weights of the parts of the examination.
4. Applicants.
 - (a) Number of examinations without residence requirements in which 100 percent of applications received were from own jurisdiction.
 - (b) Percent of applicants who took the examination.
5. Appointees.
 - (a) Rank on list.
 - (b) Median education possessed.
 - (c) Percent of appointees who had previous experience in the agency.

Subjective evaluations of special examining committees by respondents to the questionnaire were about equally split between those who favored and those who opposed the use of the committee. Posi-

⁴ One of the most frequent objections to the use of special examining committees has been that they delay the examination process. Our data revealed that the mean number of days between the first meeting of the examining agent (whether special committee, civil service commission, or other body) and the date of submission of an eligible register was 83.67 for special examining committee and 82.05 for other examining bodies.

tively, it was pointed out that such committees place maximum safeguards around selection, that they permit the application of expertness in the examination process beyond what is ordinarily available to a local agency, that they have proved helpful in reaching the labor market, and that they instill confidence among the candidates. Negatively, the comments revealed a fear that the committees would not sufficiently take local needs into account, that they would not understand the requirements of the position (if not composed of personnel administrators), or would over-emphasize technical competence. In the experience of one agency, however, these fears were allayed when the list certified by the special examining committee was found to conform substantially to evaluations made by the commission.

In Summary

ON BALANCE, it may be concluded that the special examining committee is not a markedly superior device for the selection of a personnel director. Significant differences through the use of special examining committees generally appeared in survey criteria where the difference might be attributed to a prior decision by the commission or chief executive to hold a large-scale examination, the special committee being a means to implement this decision. On the other hand, the results would not warrant any conclusion that the use of the special committee produces inferior results. The decision to use or not to use special examining committees, therefore, may appropriately depend on local circumstances.

Notes and Comments

(Continued from page 185)

to act would immediately make the entire question a political one, reviewable by the voters. Furthermore, there are probably additional legal safeguards available.

Arbitration has worked well in British municipal government. I do not say that it would work equally well in America. I do not advocate its use. I merely say that where organized labor is denied the right to strike, arbitration is worth an experiment in good faith. If it fails, by all means, let us then abandon it.—Charles R. Adrian.

PERSONNEL OPINIONS

• What is the thinking of experienced personnel people on everyday problems of personnel policy and practice? Their views can often provide readers of *Public Personnel Review* with cues to sound, constructive policy-making.

The editors have asked three experienced administrators to discuss one aspect of the discharge problem. Here's what they say.

The Question

Is a discharge based solely on personal friction between a supervisor and his subordinate valid grounds for dismissal?

The Replies

GEORGE T. BELL, Director of Personnel, Toronto, Canada.

In order to discuss this matter effectively, it is first essential that we establish just what the term "personal friction" implies in the above situation. The dictionary defines "friction" as a conflict of opinions or "lack of harmony." In this instance, since it is personal, the "lack of harmony" would be confined to two persons. It is well known that lack of harmony in any organization is bound to have a deleterious effect on functioning and that where it appears it must be corrected or the efficiency of the entire organization will rapidly deteriorate.

"Friction" may be too readily utilized as a reason for dismissal and, as such, it leaves a definite lack. To be justified, a dismissal from employment, which is a serious matter for the person dismissed, must be based on something much more tangible and obvious than personal friction, which after all, could readily be interpreted as an admission by the supervisor that he has permitted this condition to exist between him and his subordinate and, in his opinion, the fault lies totally with the subordinate.

It is much more likely that the personal friction cited as the actual cause for discharge would, on analysis, prove to be a contributing cause of discharge but would not, in itself, be sufficient reason for dismissal. Where there is friction between a supervisor and subordinate it is extremely unlikely that either party is entirely blameless. To dismiss the employee

would not appear to be an equitable way of dealing with this matter, nor would it effect a cure of the situation generally.

If we accept the opinion of the supervisor as a valid reason for the discharge of the subordinate, could it not become a much more valid reason for the dismissal of the supervisor, indicating, as it may, the fact that he has been remiss in his duty in allowing this condition to exist and to progress to a point where the discharge of an employee is contemplated as the only remedy. Many employees are dismissed simply because the supervisor feels that he has not the time, or the inclination, to properly analyze his staff, their needs, and interests. If a subordinate is to become a good employee and to progress to senior positions in the organization, it is necessary that there be mutual respect and appreciation between him and his supervisor. Employees need the appreciation and respect of their supervisor in order to feel secure in their job.

An analysis of dismissals and interviews with employees prior to their dismissal, indicates a wide variety of reasons for such dismissals, but in a majority of cases a definite lack of understanding between the supervisor and his subordinate is clearly shown. A high percentage of discharges are for what is termed poor character traits—not lack of job ability. But these poor character traits are deemed serious enough, in the opinion of supervisors, to warrant discharge.

Employees expect their supervisors to have an appreciation of their economic needs and to assist them in their endeavors to attain them by providing leadership and guidance. They also expect their supervisors to be job competent, courteous, impartial, capable, and trustworthy and to have a thorough knowledge of how well each member of his staff is performing his job. These expectations, in the employees' eyes, are the sole justification for having a supervisor. The failure of the supervisor to live up to the employees' expectations in any of the foregoing qualities invariably results in employees becoming disgruntled and dissatisfied, a condition in which friction flourishes.

Just as employees look for certain qualities in their supervisors, so do supervisors expect and demand certain qualities in their staffs. The failure of employees to demonstrate to the supervisor the qualities expected is frequently

followed by closer supervision, which the employee is prone to look upon as evidence of discrimination by the supervisor against him. If this closer supervision, which may be entirely justified on the part of the supervisor, discloses a constant need to correct the employee in his working habits then friction between the two might very well occur.

What I am endeavoring to illustrate is the fact that friction is not and cannot be the total responsibility of one person. In all fairness, therefore, it cannot be the actual cause of discharge, and such a reason should not be acceptable to those in authority over the supervisor. Rather, it should be an indication to them that their supervisory staff are derelict in their duties.

In summation, I submit that friction, except in isolated instances where two persons instinctively feel antipathetic towards each other, is a condition which seldom arises as the result of one individual action but is the culmination of a series of incidents which proper supervision should not permit to progress to a point where the discharge of an employee is deemed necessary.

JAMES M. CLINTON, Director, Oregon State Civil Service Commission.

It has been the experience of our jurisdiction in hearing appeals on dismissals and in conducting investigations of dismissals that the roots of the dismissal action go far back into the personnel records of the dismissed employees and/or their supervisors. The charge made against an employee at the time of discharge is a symptom rather than a disease. Even though the employee is released for inefficiency, insubordination, or any other reason, except for cause such as theft, drunkenness etc., the reasons given are usually only surface reasons. The real problem can be traced back to a lack of training, poor supervision, or faulty selection.

It is, of course, "second guessing" to look back over an employee's work history at the time of dismissal and say: "We should never have hired him in the first place," or "A little more training might have saved this man." It is, however, nearly always the truth.

We raise this point in support of our answer of "yes" to the above question. It is unusual for a dismissal to be made on the grounds of personal friction. A less revealing charge such as insubordination, uncooperativeness, etc., is nearly always given. However, when it is definitely known that the sole reason is personal friction, we believe that if the supervisor does

not rid himself of the person with whom he cannot work amicably, on the grounds that friction exists, a dismissal will inevitably result at a later time on some other grounds.

If we were to explore this problem at greater length we would discuss the need for harmonious relationships to promote efficiency, the concept that the supervisor is always right until proved wrong, the psychological basis for personal friction, methods for alleviating personal friction, the role of the departmental personnel officer and the central personnel agency, and dozens of other interesting and important facets of this problem. However, after mentally exploring these avenues of thought we come back to our first opinion: personal friction within an office destroys morale, lowers efficiency, disrupts working conditions, and grows worse with time instead of better. Correction of the problem calls for dismissal or transfer.

Also, in our opinion, merit agencies are too much concerned with the reasons and justice for dismissal. Perhaps we are prejudiced in favor of the "open back door" policy of the Oregon Civil Service Law. If the dismissal is not for racial, religious, or political reasons, why shouldn't the supervisor be the final authority on dismissals? There is not space here to argue the pros and cons of that highly controversial problem, but we believe we have heard all of the arguments that can be made on either side and our opinion has remained unchanged. This helps to explain our belief that if the supervisor is convinced his department can only operate efficiently by eliminating an employee with whom he has had personal friction he should be free to make that decision.

The objectives of a merit system are twofold: to prohibit the evils of a spoils system and to promote the efficiency and economy of government. It would appear to us to be incompatible with both of these objectives to question the validity of a dismissal made solely on the basis of personal friction. It adds nothing to the fight against a spoils system to retain a person who cannot work with his supervisor, and it certainly jeopardizes efficiency and economy.

A. E. GAREY, Civil Service Counsel, American Federation of State, County, and Municipal Employees.

Dr. A. H. Edgerton, Professor of Vocational Guidance, of the University of Wisconsin reports in the Wisconsin Alumnus for April and June of this year that a National Guidance Trend and Evaluation Studies Committee has found that success on a job depends more upon

a well-rounded personality than it does upon a brilliant intellect. He continues his reference to the committee report with the statement: "Three-fourths of the job failures are due not mainly to lack of knowledge and skill but chiefly to the inability of employees to get along with their employers, fellow workers, and others. . . . The applicants who would land and hold the right jobs successfully must demonstrate that they can control their emotions as fully as they do their motions." The advice from the study committee, composed of 83 members and covering studies in 29 states, is that the individual must fit himself or herself into the needs of present situations instead of trying to make the existing situation fit his or her needs and interests.

There are no provisions in state and local civil service laws or rules which specifically set out as a ground for dismissal personal friction. The older laws like Massachusetts and Wisconsin use the expression "just cause." New York modifies this expression slightly by using the language "incompetency" or "misconduct" as grounds for separation. California sets forth just cause in 20 different named actions, but in none of them does one find specific mention of personal friction between a supervisor and a subordinate.

What constitutes cause for dismissal is a matter of fact to be shown, at least in the first instance, to the satisfaction of a civil service board or commission. Presumably, personal friction is a condition which may arise from incompetence, inefficiency, lack of cooperation, and/or insubordination. If a subordinate fails to accept guidance from his superior, in California, presumably, he could be charged with "insubordination." In Wisconsin and many other jurisdictions he could be charged with committing specific acts which the supervisor would allege constituted "just cause." At any rate, personal friction is a result which may come from one specific kind of action or from many kinds of actions, any one or more of which may constitute just cause.

A recent case in Wisconsin throws some light upon our problem. A subordinate with 29 years of employment under civil service was discharged because he had, contrary to the specific directions of the head of the depart-

ment, persisted in such provocative actions as advocating a state-wide police system under his supervision before the legislature, in the press, in public addresses, and in published writings. He had, without consulting his superior, changed the insignia used by the state highway patrol to state highway police, and otherwise he had allegedly persistently annoyed, intentionally antagonized, and indirectly, if not directly, acted contrary to the expressed instructions of his superior. Surely, though personal friction was not alleged as a ground, the actions mentioned all contributed to personal friction to such an extent that the situation became intolerable.

The personnel board, by unanimous vote of the three members, held that the employing officer had shown that there was just cause for the discharge. The case went to the Supreme Court, see *Homer G. Bell vs. Personnel Board of Wisconsin*, 269 Wis. 602. In this case, the court considered the sufficiency of proof, which I think has a bearing on our matter, because in the language of the layman what the court was trying to find out was: Did the acts of the employee constitute such violation of regulations that there was developed personal friction and an intolerable situation? The United States Supreme Court in the case of *Edison Company vs. National Labor Relations Board*, 305 U.S. 197, was cited to show that while substantial evidence is required, substantial evidence does not include "the idea of weight of evidence." Also, the Wisconsin Supreme Court had held in an earlier case, *Ray-O-Vac vs. Wisconsin Labor Relations Board*, 249, Wis. 112, that it is not the function of the courts to require any preponderance of evidence. What constitutes sufficient provocation therefore is a question to be answered by the quasi-judicial body, namely, the civil service commission or the personnel board.

Lack of space does not permit full answer to the question posed here. Apparently our courts will sustain discharges based upon definable actions which result in personal friction to an extent to create intolerable management conditions. But the exercise of courageous and determined initiative by the personnel director should generally prevent such career terminating actions.



THE BOOKSHELF



SUCCESSFUL HUMAN RELATIONS. William J. Reilly. Harper & Brothers, Publishers, New York, 1952. 144 pp. \$2.50.

There are only two ways to get anyone to do anything for us: one is by persuasion; the other by force. The use of persuasion is, of course, the most acceptable. Force, at best, may be a dangerous instrument. The only way human conflict can be settled and a common agreement reached is through persuasion.

While business has long recognized that the most important quality a supervisor may possess is his ability to deal constructively with people, they have failed to develop effective training in such fields.

There are three reasons for our failure to pay more attention to the fundamental laws of human behavior.

First, we have gone a long way toward conquering our physical and material environment. Now, we must learn how to live together and adapt ourselves to a complex human environment. Second, we can violate the laws of human behavior without serious results, but the penalty for violating the laws of the material world is inevitable. The third reason is that man is a supreme egotist and refuses to face the fact that he has been unfair in his dealings with other people.

We must recognize that there are laws that govern human behavior just as there are laws which govern the character of material things. We can no longer afford to violate these laws any more than we can violate the laws governing material things. We must learn, at once, to apply the same care in solution of human problems as we have in material problems, to reduce "man's inhumanity to man," and to enjoy more of the results of successful human relations in our lives at home and abroad.

There are four mental levels in human relations: The closed mind; the open mind; confidence; and belief.

In dealing with a closed mind, you must first open his mind; a person who is merely open-minded needs plenty of evidence; one who has confidence needs only a little evidence; one who believes in you doesn't need any proof. Before attempting to deal with any person, you must determine exactly where you stand with that person. Most people feel that they are misunderstood. Few people take time to understand them. You must open your own mind

and make an effort to put yourself in the other person's place; he is then more likely to open his mind and listen to your side of the question.

If we take the initiative and stop trying to act as if we are always right, others will usually admit their failings.

In order to win confidences, think of the other fellow's interest, select the right time to present evidence, don't make promises you cannot keep, and avoid controversial attitudes. To inspire belief, prove that you are worthy of his belief in you; give him something of some importance to do without giving proof as to why he should do it.

The importance of belief relationships is chiefly that those who believe in you may gain friends and inspire belief in you in a great number of people. Very few people, no matter how well informed they are, go very far in their chosen field without the assistance and cooperation of a great many people.

The author lists three occasions when use of force might be justified: (1) when common good of all concerned is affected; (2) when all means of persuasion have been exhausted; and (3) when for the good of all, including the person concerned, it is necessary.

The author states that he is convinced that if we were to begin in grade school to teach everyone sound principles of human relations, it would soon have a profound effect on the world we live in. Each of us should make every effort, in our everyday personal relationships, to keep in harmony with our environment and help more people to be right and to teach and inspire others to do likewise.—AGNES A. MILHOAN, *Chief, Classification and Compensation Division, Colorado State Civil Service Commission.*

EXECUTIVES FOR THE FEDERAL SERVICE. John J. Corson. Columbia University Press, New York, 1952. 91 pp. \$1.50.

Teachers and students of personnel administration as well as practitioners will find this case study of a major problem in federal personnel administration profitable and interesting. The 91-page volume results from a decision of the Carnegie Corporation to the Public Administration Clearing House to sponsor a study of executives for the federal service. Certainly the Clearing House was fortunate in

obtaining John J. Corson to make the study, for there are few people who have his impressive experience in teaching, research, and the practice of government.

The first reaction upon completion of Mr. Corson's study is one of pleasure in a simply written and at the same time a substantive analysis of the problem. This brief and compact volume can well be conned as a model case study. Though there can be little disagreement with the conclusions on the nature of the problem, there undoubtedly will be much disagreement with Mr. Corson's recommended solution. Still it would be difficult for anyone to defend the proposition that Mr. Corson's recommendations do not provide one way of solving the problem.

In Chapter I, Mr. Corson discusses the impact of the Korean war on the federal service. He points out that in this emergency, as in our preceding emergencies, essential top-level personnel are not available. He lays the basis for the rest of his study by posing five focal questions which he treats in succeeding chapters. These questions deal with: (1) the types and numbers of positions for which executives are needed; (2) the methods used and adequacy of present practices in selection; (3) the reasons for refusal of positions tendered; (4) the methods needed to obtain executive talent, with comments on our historic "minuteman" approach; and (5) the ways of developing "a more adequate and a more respected corps of executives in the federal establishments" and of providing administrative leadership in times of emergency. The author points out that the present crisis differs from preceding crises in that it is indefinite. Hence, he logically concludes that a more permanent solution is essential. He emphasizes that a public awareness of the problem must precede a solution and that along with public awareness there must be greater respect for public service.

The author's suggestions are presented in two parts: those necessary in an emergency program and those needed to meet the continuing demands. He suggests in an emergency program the need for improved identification, development and use of civil service personnel, the frank and full utilization of industrial executives who will continue to be compensated by their private employers without federal compensation, improved executive recruitment methods, and a program for rotation of executives borrowed from industry between industry and government.

For the long run, since the present emergency is indefinite, the author concludes that "there is a continuing and expanding need for

an efficient and mobile corps of permanent administrators within the federal government." He suggests expanding existing programs for recruiting the ablest youth, developing positive career programs for these young men and women, raising ceilings for salaries of top-level executive positions, and establishing nonmonetary incentives (sabbatical leaves, periodic tours in business or academic institutions, allowances for entertainment, competitive scholarships for children of public employees, and extensions of the existing privileges for scientific, professional, and administrative personnel in writing on government time, publication with authorship credit, and attendance and participation in professional meetings.)

In this part of his study, the author considers that two principles new to the federal personnel service must be accepted. The first is that "potential executives should be identified with the whole government rather than with a particular department." The second is that "the status or rank held by the individual should determine his compensation rather than the classification of the position held."

The author states that his review of the executive crisis "argues strongly for the creation of a pool of career administrators" and for the study of the creation of a "public service reserve" as a complement to this pool. The concept advanced is not that of a corps, a service, or a class such as would be found in the Foreign Service, Public Health Service, or the British Administrative Class. Mr. Corson is actually discussing the identification and development of a small group of trained generalists as an additional group within the existing civil service. For this small group, he calls for the two concepts of identification with the service at large and for compensation based on status or rank in the pool. This pool would provide mobility that our present civil service system has failed adequately to provide and would be available for the staffing of executive positions in new or expanding agencies. The pool would be open to federal employees, state and municipal civil service employees, and individuals outside the public service who met established requirements. Entrance to this pool, as well as development, appraisal, and assignment of pool members would be a function of the United States Civil Service Commission. The members of the pool should not become identified with individual jobs in any agency nor should any jobs be identified as available only to members of the pool.

The reviewer would like to stress that this is not just another theoretical call for some approach to an administrative class concept. Mr.

Corson's ideas of a pool represent an interesting compromise position between the "conservatives" and the "liberals" on this subject. Such a pool concept, it will be recalled, was recommended in the Task Force Report on Federal Personnel (The Commission and Organization of the Executive Branch of the Government, January 1949) for the incumbents of "career business manager" positions. It is certainly the feeling of this reviewer that one must read this absorbing study in full before he is qualified to defend or attack Mr. Corson's recommendations.—JOHN A. WATTS, *Director of Civilian Personnel, Department of the Air Force.*

GOALS AND STRATEGY IN COLLECTIVE BARGAINING. Frederick H. Harbison and John R. Coleman. Harper and Brothers, New York, 1951. 172 pp., \$2.50.

"Labor unions are now firmly rooted in the institutional structure of modern society. Collective bargaining has become an indispensable feature of American capitalism. Yet some kinds of collective bargaining are better than others. The relationships between management and organized labor may be good or they may be bad. What then are the criteria by which we may judge whether union-management relations are 'constructive' or 'destructive'? That is the central question of our inquiry."

This study is an outgrowth of an examination of collective bargaining arrangements in 100 plants in the mass production industries: steel, automobiles, heavy and light manufacturing, rubber, meat packing, and others.

The authors have traced through a maze of intricate and varying relationships. They conclude that collective bargaining is constructive or destructive to the extent to which it advances or retards the goals of a free society. These goals are identified as: (1) enhancement of the dignity, worth, and freedom of the individual; (2) the preservation and strengthening of democratic institutions within which the individual finds expression; and (3) economic progress shared by all men. The authors emphasize that their examination of the problem does not provide the complete basis for making final judgments on the constructiveness or destructiveness of various kinds of collective bargaining and that their analysis "is meant to be provocative rather than authoritative." They suggest that other factors which they have not examined may have a bearing on the problem.

In the analytical process some commonly held concepts of collective bargaining are re-

jected: the concept that the main function of collective bargaining is economic and that collective bargaining is a revolutionary force designed to achieve the planned overthrow of capitalism.

An especially interesting and informative part of the study identifies and analyzes union and management objectives in collective bargaining and types of union-management relations. The types uncovered in the study are: (1) armed truce, in which management accepts the union as a necessary evil and the union turns itself into a protest agency; (2) the working harmony type, in which management looks upon the union as a means of implementing management functions and as a means of communication with its employees, while the union assumes its role to be that of a policeman or watch dog, but realizing that its survival depends on the well being of the company; (3) the union-management cooperation type in which management and the union accept each other completely because they have a common stake in the enterprise. (Incidentally, public personnel administrators would do well to take a look at this section of the book. It seems to describe types of relationships which sometimes exist between public personnel agencies and the organizations they serve. Some lessons may be learned which may have application in the public personnel field about why the types of relationships exist and how progress is made from one type to another.)

To those who have participated in collective bargaining sessions and wondered what each side was up to, the part of the study which identifies and analyzes management and union objectives in collective bargaining should be very useful. It suggests that management objectives and union objectives appear to be in basic conflict and don't vary much in different situations. Yet the achievement of these objectives in varying degree by both sides may result in either harmony or conflict, depending on the means employed to achieve the objectives. This study requires careful reading but it is well worth attention. It throws additional light on a tough problem.—LOUIS J. VAN MCL, *Asst. Director of Personnel, Tennessee Valley Authority.*

GROUP LEADERSHIP AND DEMOCRATIC ACTION. Franklyn S. Haiman. Houghton Mifflin, New York, 1951. 309 pp. \$2.50.

This is an excellently written book on practical leadership, mostly conference leadership, and primarily of small, face-to-face talking groups. It is warmly written, and holds interest.

It has a lot of good sense, with a fresh viewpoint and an occasional light touch. It is a must book for any executive, conference leader, or student of human nature.

The book is divided into three parts. Part One defines what is meant by leadership, describes what social scientists have learned about the way it operates, presents what philosophers and theorists have thought about the problem and the kinds of solutions they have proposed, examines the merits and shortcomings of the proposals, and suggests a policy on leadership. Part Two takes up the attitudes and skills of democratic leadership. Part Three discusses the methods of training leaders for democracy and the resistances to change which must be overcome.

In Part One, *Approaches to Leadership*, the author points out that the subject of leadership has intrigued men since the beginning of civilization. In the broadest sense, leadership refers to that process whereby an individual directs, guides, influences, or controls the thoughts or behavior of other human beings. Direct, face-to-face leadership operates most frequently through the medium of speech, and it is this type with which this book is concerned.

Leadership implies a purpose on the part of the leader, directing the behavior of others toward a particular end. The qualifications for leadership are easily identifiable. However, not all leaders can possibly have all the qualities for an ideal leader, and need not, since leadership requirements of definite situations vary greatly.

Tradition often plays a hand in the selection of leaders, as in the divine right of kings and the tradition of seniority in many industries. Accident or circumstance sometimes places people in positions of leadership. Some people become leaders because they tend to assert themselves into positions of leadership. Other factors that influence the selection of the leader, and his behavior after he becomes a leader, include: the type of job that needs to be done, leader's personality, the personality of the followers, and the sanctions at the leader's disposal.

The author reviews and shows the relationships between the two major philosophies of leadership that have currency in the world—authoritarianism and democracy. It is pointed out that leaders range from completely authoritarian to completely democratic. The authoritarian leader or autocrat directs the behavior of others toward his predetermined ends, whereas the democratic leader looks at the situation as one in which all members of a group are equal to the leader, and seek mutually

agreeable goals. Between these extremes there are many degrees of leadership which are not fully autocratic nor completely democratic.

Democratic leadership is based on understanding, and achieves group decisions. It utilizes all human resources available, fosters individualism, cohesiveness, higher morale, freedom of expression, permits progress through change, and provides for setting the method of making decisions in as important light as the decisions themselves.

Democratic leadership has certain limitations. Agreements made in the democratic way can sometimes be successfully attacked as not representing the best thinking available. Under a completely democratic leadership, the group is subject to the "tyranny of indecision" and must accept as part of a group those who are highly individualistic. Furthermore, democratic processes of discussion and decision are limited by the numbers of people who can partake in any discussion. Large groups cannot achieve face-to-face situations needed to accomplish democratic decisions.

Ranging from completely authoritarian to completely democratic, the author presents five categories of leaders:

(1) The executive who directs others, (2) the judge who is an arbitrator, (3) the advocate who is a propagandist or a salesman, (4) the expert who instructs or gives technical advice, and (5) the discussion leader who manages the discussion of a group in a completely democratic way. It is important to realize, of course, that one individual may play all of these roles at various times. The executive who turns to democratic methods of making decisions is no longer an executive, but a discussion leader.

In Part Two, *Attitudes and Skills of Democratic Leadership*, the author points out that the skills he discusses are not the exclusive concern of the one man in every group called "the leader." Every member of a democratic group should share leadership to the utmost of his ability. Leadership should constantly pass around from one to another. Before a discussion leader can begin to operate effectively, he must understand the dynamics of groups; he must understand what a group is, why groups exist, the various types of groups and the behavior of people as individuals in a group, and how people think and act together. The successful discussion leader must have certain attitudes and skills; he must have a well-adjusted personality, a basic respect and concern for other human beings, sensitivity toward moods of a group, knowledge of his subject, facility in verbalizing idea of groups, self-restraint, vitality and mellowness. He

needs skill in the handling of people in a discussional situation so that he is able to establish a warm and friendly climate in the group. He needs to be able to stimulate argument and obtain emotional involvement in a diplomatic manner. He must understand the importance of encouraging mutual understanding and respect among the group. He must know how to draw nonparticipants into the discussion as well as how to check over-aggressive participants.

The effective discussion leader needs to be familiar with scientific processes of logic and thinking and he needs to guide the group so that it proceeds in a somewhat orderly manner in at least the general direction of the objective of the discussion. This involves his insisting that: the members of the discussion group set limits on the boundaries of their discussion; they clarify concepts which they individually carry to the meeting with them; they clearly set forth the objectives in their discussion; they analyze the problem they are attacking, and if possible, reexamine their objectives after they have analyzed the problem.

Then the discussion leader needs to know how to aid the group in discovering and isolating possible solutions to the problem, in evaluating these possible solutions and reaching agreement as to the best solution. Every discussion leader needs to be familiar with the nature of social conflicts between individuals in a group and how these conflicts may be resolved, such as by intelligent discussion, acceptance of opposing points of view, majority rule, the fundamental principles of parliamentary law, and other democratic devices.

In Part Three, *The Future of Group Leadership*, the author reports some of the studies which illustrate the use of techniques in training for democratic leadership: experiments in on-the-job training, role-playing, training in group leadership in colleges and universities, business and adult education programs.

There are exercises at the end of each chapter. Appendices include examples of shared leadership, the Barnlund-Haiman Leader Rating Scale, Sample Leadership Case Studies, and a bibliography.—CATHERINE S. LOTT, *Acting Chief, Recruitment and Utilization Division, Office of Personnel Management, Department of Commerce.*

THE CIVIL SERVICE TODAY. T. A. Critchley. Gollancz, London, 1951. 150 pp.

Within a remarkably brief compass, the author has presented a broad and yet very

vivid account of the British Civil Service as it is organized and in operation today.

There is no sense of strain in his style; the simple, unassuming, explanatory attitude is most engaging and convincing. This is especially important, since, if an argumentative purpose is to be imputed, Mr. Critchley wins greatly by quiet and convincing exposition of things as they are. He has authority, since this book is one of the few written by a practicing civil servant. Lord Beveridge, himself a former civil servant of classic stature, observes in an interesting introduction, that it is a sign of our popular times, that the author's official superiors have relaxed the rule of civil service silence and anonymity, to permit him to tell the public what, as the democratic employer of the civil service, it ought to know—and this, because of the supreme functions it performs in the state, and because the civil service, swollen by the public's own demands that it be employed in serving the people, constitutes a very large labor force, with all the problems, the humdrum problems, of a labor force.

The organization of Mr. Critchley's book follows this course: the scope, size and functions of the service; its structure; its staff; the pattern of a day's work (very skillfully suggested); the special work of the higher civil service in the formulation of legislation, the guidance of ministers, the direction of the great pyramid of staffs and work in each department; the servant-master relationship, and the producer-consumer relationship between civil service and public. Then follows a survey of the responsibilities of the Treasury and the "spending" departments, and a sketch of the *raison d'être* of the quasi-government organizations and public corporations that have come to play such a large part in a quasi-planned economy and society. He concludes with a short, but pregnant, consideration of lines of reform.

I shall pass over the clear view of numbers, classification, grades, and organization, and draw attention rather to the physiology of the body bureaucratic, and given the limits of space, only to some special features.

A very realistic account is given of the part played by top civil servants in the process of formulating the law at its earliest stage, the constant vigil while the bill is in Parliament and its committees, ending with the drafting of "delegated" legislation, and the process of turning the blueprint of authority, so established, into capable personnel, suitably organized and animated, and set to work on the "appointed day." Here is a light on the creative part played by the civil servant (p. 21):

Under the Town and Country Planning Act some forty sets of Regulations were made after full discussion with representatives of all the interests likely to be affected by them—local authorities, church and other landowning charities, brewers, industry, mineral workers, commerce, landowners, builders, banks, building societies, insurance, lawyers, surveyors, and many more. Thus at the point where the legislative process sometimes seems to be wrapped in the deepest mystery, it is in fact working most freely in the widest interests of democracy.

One must imagine, then, the civil servant in the position of a representative of the "public" as a whole, defending the welfare of the commonwealth, and hence the need for breadth and perception in his mind and character, as well as the probity and impartiality to be expected of him. It has its relationship to education and method of recruitment, as well as the principles of anonymity and political neutrality. The American student will see in this phase of the civil servant's work something of the role played by the Congressional Committee in the course of hearings on legislation.

Mr. Critchley gives an acute insight into the controls exercised over the activities of civil servants: Parliamentary, Treasury, and the political heads of the departments. These are conventional subjects, yet there is an air of freshness about the discussion. Here is an important assessment (p. 33):

A moment's consideration suggests that the vast bulk of the Service is not perceptibly influenced in its day-to-day working by either Parliamentary, Treasury, or Ministerial control. Much of it . . . is virtually "out of control." It goes on and on in the same way, year after year, and neither the Treasury, nor Parliament, nor the public, bothers very much about it. It runs like a perfectly tuned car on a dead straight road, a driver at the wheel, but with his mind on other things. Perhaps it is not quite true to say that the car, or let us say the Post Office, is out of control entirely. Both are so finely adjusted, and all their cogs and wheels and pinions so meticulously balanced, that they largely control themselves.

What does this truth indicate? Two things: that the main lines of control are wisely contrived, but, that, much reliance is placed on morale, and the integrity of relationship between the personality of the civil servants and their sense of obligation and responsiveness to their democratic masters. No system of external control alone can ever be heavy and inquisitorial enough to do the job of animation and propulsion and prevention of abuse of office. The attunement of the official to his task and purpose, his identification with his occupation's devotion, is critical to success. This leads back to the general decency of the society he serves.

Mr. Critchley throws new light, though not a fierce one, on the effect of modern tasks in straining the existent classification and grading of the service, the gradual osmosis of tasks from administrative class to the executive class. And throughout, the work of the Organization and Methods officers, and the Training experts, to take advantage of scientific management for efficiency, and a human, intelligent and pliable state of mind in relations with the public glows over the pages. A section, of great importance, introduces the subject of the rise of the Scientific Service and its links with policy at the top level and with the clerical-administrative services. The new arrangements for a centralized consideration of promotions to advance the best material for the sake of the service and to avoid the inequity of ignoring men in 'unlucky' departments, is of novel interest.

The discussion of "the day's work" is very intelligently presented: red tape and records, precedents good and bad, registries, correspondence, minuting, conferences, committees, and so on. The main point that emerges, apart from a real insight into the way a department does business, with examples taken from different levels and from field outposts of the departments, is the reason why the civil service is, usually, stiff, formal, cautious, and slow in its actions, or, at any rate, is so judged by the public. Here, as elsewhere, it is shown that these qualities—"turning in their grooves"—could be avoided if the public were willing to pay for more civil servants (for speed), and willing to be treated unequally and without precedents (for spontaneity and uncautiousness). The harder the master, the less flexible the servant! Remedies are suggested: on-the-job orientation and training; changing of habits, especially in thinking about the public and the style of writing to it; new devices, now in operation, to humanize public relations.

The American student will appreciate, even more than now, after the perusal of this work, the constant tension the higher civil servants suffer from the exacting demands of parliamentary control, symbolized most sensationally by Question Time, but not nearly exhausted thereby. It leaves the top civil servants at the mercy of ministers during the parliamentary sessions, and demands of them, only after this exigency has been satisfied, that they then turn their attention to unpostponable day-by-day matters, and, only after that, to longer-range policies.

Some idea of the spirit that animates the top civil service, and with them and through them, all of its members, may be derived from these considerations. It is highly probable that its

numbers are the smallest, consistent with the job to be done, of any body of officials in the world; it is probably seriously understaffed. (The first instrument in the orchestra to go in hard times is the harp.) Against this fact, set these two observations by Mr. Critchley:

Late nights, hard work, and plenty of kicks: these are the civil servant's reward for being "in" on legislation. Yet there are few who, privileged to take part in the drive to get the new social services working on the 5th July 1948, failed to respond to the wonderful feeling of unity, and civil service in its truest sense, that inspired tiny cells of the Service from Whitehall to far away Newcastle-on-Tyne. (p. 79)

And this, the civil servant having worked until eight or so in the evening, because other work has occupied him all day:

At length he will select a few of the remaining files, stow them into his despatch case, and go home. If he is wise, he will have dinner, gossip with Mrs. White, yawn over a book, and go to bed. Often he cannot afford to be wise, and then the contents of the despatch case are strewn over the dining-room table. Mrs. White dutifully switches off the radio and muses on the injustice of it all, while her husband works away until he can do no more. . . . His real compensation is not money,

certainly not leisure, but the reward that springs from the consciousness, of a worth-while job, and the continual, absorbing interest of it all. Perhaps, too, he secretly likes his authority and meed of power. (p. 73)

It was possible only to suggest what this book contains, and to convey its flavor by some characteristic quotations. It is exceedingly human, and it is an excellent introduction to the British Civil Service. There is an ever-present vein of humor—good humor in it, and a resistance to the cynicism that may afflict some rare old grouches. He knows the foibles of his fellow-servants and those within himself, and confesses.

The great pride is there. He quotes *The Times*:

The Civil Service emerges from the proceedings as immaculate as its warmest admirers could desire. . . . These (civil servants) are men exercising great powers for modest reward, but not even Mr. Stanley (a self-styled contact man between business and Government about whom the referred-to proceedings revolved—H.F.) dared attempt to sap the integrity of members of a body whose corporate reputation is so impregnable.

It all goes back to a way of life—a civilization: like civilization, like civil service.—Herman Finer, *University of Chicago*.

Spend to Save

WE MUST work toward the day when the Congress will recognize that the government, which is the biggest business of all, must be provided the funds to conduct research on its product, which is service to the public. Government can take a lesson from industry in this respect. The success of industry is based on constant improvement of the product and reduction of costs through research.

Unquestionably, we could improve the testing of applicants for federal employment if we had funds to carry on studies to validate our examinations. As matters stand, only an infinitesimal fraction of the more than seven billion dollars expended for personal services during a year can be used for research in the field of personnel management. This is wholly out of tune with the practice of American industry, which devotes a really significant proportion of its total outlay to product research.—James M. Mitchell, *Commissioner, U.S. Civil Service Commission, in address before the Society for Personnel Administration, February 26, 1952.*

Current Literature

Articles of Interest in the
Public Personnel Field

Administration

JOHNSTONE, DOROTHY, "Developments in the British Civil Service." *Public Administration*, Spring, 1952.—Treasury control of the civil service continues despite criticisms and suggestions that possibly the Civil Service Commission might be better fitted for the job. Treasury has delegated some of its power to departments for some changes within "ceiling" or "target" establishments. The Treasury controls "total staff numbers rather than detailed complementing," by a system of inspection and scrutiny of departmental returns. Since 1945 the structure and compositions of many classes has been revised to reduce, amalgamate or re-define their uses. The most significant change was the creation of general scientific, professional and technical classes in lieu of specialized departmental classes. Recruitment had to be modernized to give more positive efforts to find staff now that competition for workers was keener. The concern over recruitment was such that an attitude survey was undertaken to determine the factors which motivated young people and their parents for or against the Civil Service. Greater emphasis was given to training based on an attitude, as expressed by the Treasury, that training need not suffer if economies in manpower were to be achieved since training could contribute towards manpower saving but that economy in training, like other activities, was possible. "The trend of promotion policy has been towards greater equality of opportunity throughout the service." "Established civil servants in lower grades have been given regular annual opportunities of competing for Assistant Principal and Executive Officer grades by service-wide competitions." Departmental promotions were restricted. Pooling arrangements were instituted which aided departments where promotion is abnormally slow to contribute candidates to a Treasury pool from which they can be passed on to other departments. Pay and conditions of service have improved since the war. The war bonus was consolidated with basic pay in 1946 and "during the rest of the period, pay negotiations have proceeded class by class and grade by grade in the old way." "Provincial differentiation in pay has been maintained and extended, and transfer grants were introduced to facilitate transfers within the United Kingdom. Pay for higher servants was increased gradually as a result of the adoption of recommenda-

tions of the Chorley Committee, an outside body which gave disinterested advice. Work hours were reduced from 51 to 48 in 1945 and to 45½ in 1946 which remains the standard." "The five-day week seems as far off as it ever was." "Some attempt has been made to lessen the security which the service used to provide for the inefficient by paying pensions forthwith to civil servants aged 50 or over whose retirement is considered to be desirable in the interests of efficiency." On the other hand, large numbers of messengers, paperkeepers, etc., have become pensionable in line with the current view that "temporary fringes" of staff should exist for genuinely temporary work. Civil servants have been encouraged to remain after reaching the retirement age because of the manpower shortage. Plans have been made to disperse some of the headquarters staffs from London to the provinces and some shifting has occurred. Large departments now have welfare officers and government canteens have developed with financial assistance from the Exchequer. A Treasury Medical Service was created to advise individuals on health problems and to attend to emergency cases. Physical working conditions was a subject of study by Treasury, and that agency together with the Ministry of Works have provided, on a small scale, brighter and more pleasant furnishings. —Kenneth R. Scobie.

MITCHELL, JAMES M., "Six Steps to an Improved Civil Service." *Personnel Administration*, May, 1952.—Our public personnel system today is in the center of a storm in which both danger and opportunity are beating at the structure and show unmistakably that the civil service system is not a thing that can be once attained and henceforth placed in the trophy case as a secure possession of the American people. It must be armed with the best modern devices. Modern problems must be met with modern powers and modern ingenuity. Moreover, we must constantly keep in view the necessity of holding administrative costs to a minimum. A more efficient public service will be a major step in that direction. Six specific areas of improvement which require the best thinking and the best effort of all of us are enumerated:

First, we must give direction and force to the present move on the part of the President and in Congress to bring more federal jobs under

the civil service system. *Second*, we must measure not only the ability but also the character and integrity of those who aspire to careers in public life. *Third*, in filling jobs by promotion we must have effective means of searching out the best man, whether he is in our bureau or our agency or even, in the case of top jobs, in some totally different agency of government. *Fourth*, we must train federal workers, as industry does, not only on the job but in plants, laboratories, and universities as needs require. *Fifth*, we must provide incentives for the weeding out of unneeded or unsatisfactory employees, at the same time retaining safeguards to protect the good employee from arbitrary dismissal. *Sixth*, but by no means least in importance, we must enlist the understanding and support of our fairminded American public in the cause of better management of our government—the biggest business on earth. Each point is discussed and it is observed that our own public service and the public service of other countries has made one thing crystal clear: A public service which enjoys the full confidence and respect of the citizens of a country is essential to democratic government. Where that confidence is lost, the dangers are many and serious, and one of them is totalitarian government. All of us in America, and especially those of us who carry part of the responsibility for federal personnel management, have a great obligation to do our utmost to see that the public service is the best that we in America can possibly create.—*Ruth L. Olson.*

GLADIEUX, BERNARD, "Civil Service versus Merit." *Public Administration Review*, Summer, 1952.—Growing inflexibility of the federal civil service has impeded recruitment and retention of the best personnel for public service, and these rigidities, designed to eliminate political considerations, have failed in this negative objective. We cannot remove politics completely from public employment. Pressures for, and the volume of, political appointments have increased despite civil service regulations. Politics does not require burdening personnel management with cumbersome limitations. The civil service system has become so complex that many administrators have given up any attempt to understand how it operates. Many personnel officials have tended to lose sight of the original concept of "merit" in public service and to substitute the idea of "civil service" in which tenure and status are the primary considerations. The present system is generally not adapted to attracting or developing personnel for executive level positions. Rigidity of tenure places the burden of proof in dismissals

so completely on the department that it discourages the supervisor from initiating cases. The Commission should place less reliance on absolute formulas in the selection and retention of employees and greater reliance on the judgment of the Commission and the employing agency. The "rule of three" should be abandoned and provision made for the certification of availability for appointment of all qualified by the Commission. A better way should be found of giving civil service status to the non-civil-service employee who has demonstrated his qualifications. Reduction-in-force regulations should be revised to prevent forcing out competent employees and replacing them with incompetent ones. Promotions should be based on a higher standard of merit and high efficiency ratings, with tenure de-emphasized. The procedure and policy for dismissals should be changed so that both the agency and the employee are treated equitably. The present system fosters a leveling process in which good and bad are treated much alike, with diminishing incentives for those with initiative and ability. Most civil servants are carrying on in the best traditions of the public service, and any blanket indictment is unfair. Some administrators feel that our government personnel systems have failed to meet operational needs. Damage may be done when intelligent critics are joined by politicians who favor a return to patronage. Responsible operators need the latitude to acquire and keep qualified people and to screen out the incompetent.—*Wendell H. Russell.*

FISHMAN, LEO, "Limitations of the Business Executive as Government Administrator." *The Journal of Business*, April, 1952.—During the last two decades, vast powers over the national economy have come to reside in the executive branch of the government. The character and personality of the administrator thus becomes a matter of vital importance, alike in industry and in government. In both, the administrator must now exercise discretion in the interpretation and application of legislated powers, in the formulation of programs and policies, and in the development of administrative controls. There exists among the members of the Congress and among the general public a widespread belief that experience as a business executive furnishes the most desirable type of qualifying experience for a position as governmental administrator. This type of experience appears to be regarded far more highly than experience in the law, university teaching, labor union leadership, or politics.

The validity of this assumption cannot be accepted without question. It obviously applies only to large industries; government agencies are typically large organizations, and the executive of a small firm generally lacks experience in handling many of the problems and situations which arise only in large organizations. Nor can it be assumed that all executives of large firms are automatically qualified by experience for positions as government administrators. For one thing, their basic objectives are different: profit on the one hand, service on the other. The idea of profit is straightforward and clear; that of service is often difficult to define. Vague or excessively broad grants of authority (as in the Office of War Mobilization) create all manner of problems, and even where the grant is specific (as in the War Assets Administration), the public character of the agency makes its objectives somewhat different from what one might expect.

While the business executive thinks in terms of company advantage, the government administrator must frequently think in terms of the effect upon the national economy. While the business establishment, accountable in most respects only to itself, can get along with a minimum of internal controls, the public agency—because it is a public agency—must establish comprehensive, detailed, and integrated internal administrative controls, which apply with equal force to the entire staff of the agency. This problem of controls often proves to be vexatious, or even frustrating, to the business executive in a government position. In spite of a number of wartime and post-war increases in federal pay rates, federal salaries still suffer by comparison with those normally paid in private employment to individuals of like training, experience, and ability, many of whom are simply not interested in positions paying such modest salaries. A man may, of course, remain on the payroll of a private corporation, but this is apt to interfere with his effectiveness and may become an actual source of embarrassment. The author concludes that, in view of these serious limitations on the usefulness of the business executive as a government administrator, it would be well to look elsewhere for talent, particularly to those with successful experience in the government service itself. The appearance of this article in a quarterly "devoted to the scientific and professional interests of business" should not pass unnoticed.—*W. Brooke Graves.*

Training

PALLEY, ARNOLD D., and ZALETEL, FRANK, "Two Interns' Views on Civil Service—The

Role of a Central Personnel Agency." *Personnel Administration* May, 1952.—Both Mr. Palley and Mr. Zaletel feel that decentralizing the examining and classification functions of the central agency to the operating departments, has changed the role of the central agency. Mr. Palley regards the two goals of public personnel administration as the "protection of the federal employee and . . . the efficient utilization of personnel." Mr. Zaletel regards its goal as being "to aid management in every possible way in the accomplishment of management's goals." Mr. Palley lists the methods through which the objectives are achieved:

1. *Finding out*, through inspectors, what the internal personnel operations of agencies are; through liaison with the President, Congress, and the Bureau of the Budget what must be done to effectuate current management policy; through the various sources of personnel what is going on in respect to the quality and quantity of personnel available.

2. *Leading*, by making policy, establishing standards, and enforcing them.

3. *Education*, by serving as a clearing house of information and providing direct training to agency personnel.

4. *Reporting*, to the President, the Congress, and the public.

Mr. Zaletel lists the departments of the central office, with their counterparts in the field offices, which perform the supervisory and regulatory, as well as the policy-making activities of a central personnel agency. With the central agency doing the planning, and the agencies performing the operating functions, some danger may exist of establishing unrealistic policies. This is overcome, in part, by filling central office vacancies with regional office personnel and assigning regional office personnel to the field. An attempt is made to keep operations uniform through manuals, regulations, and inspections.—*Helen Esray Chase.*

JOHNSON, LOWELL F., "A Well-Organized Visual Program; What It Means in Labor Relations." *Personnel*, March, 1952.—Sight conservation is of paramount importance in day-to-day labor relations. The relation of vision to safety has long been emphasized, but the relation of vision to production and efficiency has not. Emphasis on sight conservation needs to be changed from protection to protection and correction. The source of many labor relation problems, such as grievances; quality, and quantity problems; accidents; and absences stem from vision problems. Safety experts agree that about one-half of the employees of a typical industrial operation have visual in-

efficiencies, not permitting optimum job performance. Too, as the age of the worker increases, visual problems increase correspondingly. Only about 15% of industry give careful visual examinations at the time of selection. Visual examinations given at the point of selection can aid in corrective measures and careful placement. Job analysis should determine among other things the visual capacity an employee should possess to perform the job satisfactorily. Dissatisfaction develops when employees are not matched to the job for which they are visually capable. Both union and supervising officials should assist the professional group in establishing visual requirements for the job. The visual program affects the attitude of the individual towards his job, home, and community. In addition to correction of individual deficiencies, the work place must have the optimum in lighting, color conditions, and reflection factors. A well-organized visual program offers limitless possibilities in terms of increased output, because of the opportunity for optimum use of an individual's visual potential, and also for improved labor relations.—*Alberta J. Brown.*

SAMUELSON, H. L., "Tools and Techniques of Executive Development." *Personnel*, May, 1952.—The purpose of executive development programs is to assure that reserves of men are qualified and available for replacement as openings occur in key positions. The problem of executive development is one of prominent interest and attention throughout the country. Typical objectives of development programs include: (1) provision for adequate reserves of qualified and seasoned candidates as vacancies occur, (2) the assurance that promising individuals will have the opportunity to develop and utilize their capabilities, (3) to assure that key positions are filled by fully qualified individuals, and (4) to develop and foster among management full appreciation of the obligation as to selection, training, appraisal, placement, and utilization of key personnel, on a company-wide, rather than a purely departmental basis.

To implement a formal executive development program, it is usually necessary to have basic organization charts, job descriptions, a personnel inventory, appraisals of performance and potential, and replacement schedules. The staff agency charged with the responsibility of executive development counsels and assists management, directly with individual departments and through liaison among them, in carrying forward the objectives of the program. In immediate and in forward planning of re-

placements, it reviews with the department concerned candidates within the department in relation to candidates in other departments, in order to foster company-wide consideration and utilization of talents when mutually advantageous. It counsels and assists in the appraisal of performance and potential capabilities of personnel as a guide to development utilization and placement. Today all departments of one company are regularly participating in such a program and find it mutually advantageous to the company and its employees. (Article contains illustrations of personnel forms used.)—*Rufus C. Browning.*

Supervision

OWEN, W. B., "Dynamics of Employee Status." *Personnel*, May, 1952.—Companies with high turnover have little concern with the problem of changing status of employees. Conversely, a stable labor force directs attention to internal status dynamics. Future labor forces should tend to stabilize because of better selection techniques, more attention to stabilization of employment, and company pension plans. This article deals only rarely with the subject of wage changes which are closely related to status changes. Status dynamics is defined as changes of status within an organization and may also be defined as the changes in the distribution of prestige values among the personnel of an organization. Data pertaining to status dynamics fall into three categories: (1) structure, (2) number and percentage of employees affected, and (3) time. Structure includes job sequence data and a company organization chart. The number of persons occupying each job classification and the percentage of employees in each status level are necessary for analyzing the status problem. Finally, status data must be based on the average lapse of time between promotions. Such data is essential to all levels of personnel. An organization should have status balance to avoid becoming top-heavy with high-ranking positions, or too many at the lower levels. How does one measure the promotional opportunities in an organization? (At this point the author presents four sample systems illustrating various types of promotion policies.) It is clear that the structure of an organization limits the formation of a status dynamics policy. It does not solve the problem but increases it, assuming a basic need for a feeling of competitive success. How can an individual measure his progress if there are no markings along the way? It may be that our industrial society has created a system of standardized jobs that fails

to harmonize with the distribution of human abilities. This points up the importance of measuring merit for the purpose of implementing status changes. Finally, the status question operates in an ideological frame of equality. Despite the probable controversial aspects of policy that "creates" status, the rewards from a well planned and efficiently executed creative policy may be much greater than expected. (Article contains chart showing promotion policies as measured by "time" and "personnel" distribution.)—John W. Jackson.

BROWNE, C. G., and NEITZEL, B. J., "Communication, Supervision, and Morale." *Journal of Applied Psychology*, April, 1952.—This study was an investigation of the communication of responsibility, authority, and delegation of authority at three supervisory levels of a utilities company and included a study of employee morale in relation to the three factors. The R, A, and D Scales developed by Stogdill and Shartle and the Harris morale scale were used as measuring instruments. As one measure of communication, a disparity score was used which represented the differences between the individual's estimates of her supervisor in the case of R and A and the estimates of her assistants for D. The results of the investigation included the following: (1) Individuals estimated their responsibility, authority, and delegation of authority in relation to their position in the company, those nearer the focal point of the organization having higher scores on all three variables. (2) Responsibility and authority were not estimated to be equal, but most subjects believed their responsibility exceeded their authority. (3) Disparity scores (the differences between the individual's estimates of R, A and D for herself and the estimates of her supervisor or assistants, as appropriate, of the three factors for the individual) produced no cases of agreement between individuals on varying levels of supervision, the amount of disparity being a measure of incomplete or unsatisfactory communication. (4) There was a negative relationship between morale scores and disparity scores, this being particularly evidenced with R disparity scores which correlated $-.54$ with morale scores. (5) Correlations of $.56$, $.31$, and $.63$ were obtained between the deviation of individual R, A, and D scores from the mean score of each supervisory level group and disparity scores for the three variables. (6) Morale scores were found to be positively related to the echelon of the supervisors, the inner level supervisors generally having the highest scores and in the inner supervisory levels there was a trend as indicated in correlation coefficients

ranging from $-.16$ to $-.47$, for those who estimated responsibility and authority higher to have lower morale scores.—Carroll R. Boling.

Employee Relations

BOAZ, ROBERT S., "Don't Tell 'em 'til You Ask 'em." *Supervision*, March, 1952.—We cannot get anyone to put our orders, instructions, or ideas into practice until we get acceptance of those ideas by the listener. The modern supervisor is getting acceptance of his program by working constantly to get listeners voluntarily to accept his ideas. We do not get voluntary acceptance by merely "telling the other fellow." We must not "tell 'em 'til we ask 'em," if we are to know which points require the listener's voluntary acceptance. The assistant manager of a large pulp mill was faced with the problem of reducing controllable costs. Knowing that, in the past, orders to reduce costs had failed, he decided to try the philosophy of "not telling 'em 'til he asked 'em." The superintendents of various departments in the company were called together and presented with questions similar to the following: (1) What are the controllable cost factors in your departments? (2) What should the supervisor look for to identify abnormal cost situations? (3) What actions can the superintendent take to control cost items that appear to be out of line? The superintendents, following the same techniques, called their subordinates together to discuss these problems in their respective departments. The results were amazing. In one small operation, 3300 man hours per year were saved; in another department, output was boosted some 36 to 51 tons per day; accident frequency was reduced tremendously, and customer complaints cut to less than half the former number. By this process, the superintendent tapped the brain power of his subordinates and, at the same time, clarified their understanding so they would accept and use the ideas developed without resistance. Many other examples could be cited of how superintendents have reduced costs by analyzing their problems together. This personnel development plan will not create a Utopia. It takes time and calls for planning of work schedules in order to permit the men to get together. However, you have a warehouse of brainpower under your supervision. Why not tap the brainpower at your command? Clear and complete understanding following free discussion of your problems will result in voluntary acceptance and successful application of your ideas, your orders, and your instructions, provided

you "Don't Tell 'em 'til You Ask 'em."—*Kelvin D. Sharp.*

POSEY, ROLLIN B., "Analysis of City Employee Strikes." *Public Management*, June, 1952.—Twenty-three cities over 10,000 population reported work stoppages among their employees in the year 1951, according to replies received from questionnaires distributed by the International City Managers' Association in preparation for the chapter on personnel data in the 1952 *Municipal Year Book*. Supplemental questionnaires were sent to the 23 cities reporting strikes in 1951. Twenty of them returned the questionnaires. Two further sources of information were utilized in a number of these cities. Newspaper accounts were looked up, and the unions involved sent in their versions of the incidents in several instances. Statistics reported are oversimplifications of the objective of the strikes, for identification of the principal demand of strikers can be extraordinarily difficult. Data confirmed the observation that the longer the strike, the less likely that the strikers will win anything. Just as it may be difficult to ascertain the primary demand of strikers, it may be difficult to determine whether they have won anything. A coercive law will not prevent government strikes, and a harsh law is apt to foster harsh relationships. Strikes will occur whether or not there are laws against them, because prohibiting strikes does not get at their causes. Whether the "fault" for a strike lies with the workers or with the city government, the strike itself is *prima facie* evidence of a breakdown in employee relations. A strike is always a result. The causes of strikes must be eliminated to eliminate strikes. Courage, tact, patience, willingness to hear the other fellow's point of view—these attributes will go a long way in settling a strike. (Article contains analyses of factors related to strikes, their unusual features, prevention, and suggestions of what to do should a strike occur.)—*Ullmont L. James.*

VAN ZELST, RAYMOND H., "Worker Popularity and Job Satisfaction." *Personnel Psychology*, Winter, 1951.—This study was designed to determine the relationship between how well a worker is liked by his fellow workers and job satisfaction by the Kerr "Tear Ballot for Industry." Sixty-six construction workers in the building trades were used for the experiment. All were union members and had been on the job at least three months. A job satisfaction questionnaire—Kerr "Tear Ballot for Industry"—and a fellow employee rating sheet were distributed to each person. The worker rated

each person in his group on a five-point scale of how he liked him as a work partner. They were told the data would be confidential and they did not need to sign the rating sheets. The study showed the "popular worker" is much more satisfied with his job than the less well-liked employee. He also feels more secure in his job, believes he has good working conditions, and has confidence in the ability of his supervisors. He considers his co-workers friendly and has confidence in the good intentions of management. The high correlation between interpersonal desirability of worker and job satisfaction may be overestimated, for all the subjects in this experiment were from the building trades. Such workers are greatly in demand, the worker has a wide range of jobs to choose from, the wages are fixed by the union, and the worker tends to take the job where working conditions are best and the company is interested in the employee. (Article contains charts showing intercorrelations and a bibliography.)—*Dorothy Woodford Cooper.*

KIRCHNER, W., LINDBOM, T., and PATERSON, D. G., "Attitudes Toward the Employment of Older People." *Journal of Applied Psychology*, June, 1952.—The Industrial Relations Center at the University of Minnesota has undertaken a series of studies of the older employee in business and industry. It was recognized that attitudes toward older persons in the labor market might be important determinants in their efficient utilization. A total of 53 items was drawn up, on the basis of a survey of the literature, plus the gathering of opinions about the older employee. The results revealed the need for redefining many of the items as well as the elimination of many items which were too neutral, i.e., did not reveal favorableness or unfavorableness toward older people as employees. A revised scale of 27 items was drawn up. The 27-item scale was then given to a plant-wide sample of 46 rank-and-file employees and 16 supervisors and executives in a laundry. Thus, the revised scale was shown to meet the requirement of "internal consistency." It is clear that attitudes toward the older employee are a function of age itself. The younger the person, the less favorable is his attitude toward the older worker. The younger worker, on the average, is not antagonistic toward the older worker. But as rank-and-file employees become older they exhibit increasingly favorable attitudes toward the older worker. As a matter of fact, the differences are quite striking. On the basis of the results of the 27-item scale secured to date, the Industrial Relations Center is now using a

24-item scale entitled "Questionnaire About Problems of Older Employees." This paper describes the development of a scale for measuring attitudes toward the employment of older people. One of the most significant findings to date has been the striking age difference disclosed by the use of the scale. Rank-and-file employees "under 30" are, on the average, neutral toward the employment of older workers. The "30 to 49" years group and the group "over 50" are increasingly favorable toward the older worker. As a result of a third item analysis a 24-item scale is now being used in a variety of studies of the occupational adjustment problems of the older workers. (tables)—*Gale L. Reeder.*

TUCKMAN, J., and LONGE, I., "Attitudes Toward Older Workers." *Journal of Applied Psychology*, June, 1952.—The problem of the older worker in business and industry has been an especially pressing one during periods of rising employment. It is claimed that older workers are slow, increase production costs, have a higher accident rate, are a poor investment, resent younger supervisors, resist new procedures and work methods, have a higher rate of absenteeism, are hard to get along with, etc. Material for a 51-statement questionnaire designed to measure the extent to which graduate students subscribe to these commonly held beliefs about older workers was obtained by interviews with employers, employment counselors engaged in job placement work with older applicants, public employment service officials, directors of private agencies engaged in job placement activity, job applicants, and by a review of the literature. The statements were classified into the following 9 categories: physical, mental, resistance to new, reaction to criticism, keeping youth down, employer attitudes—costs, waiting for retirement, interpersonal, jobs. The questionnaire was then administered to 147 graduate students (92 men and 55 women) enrolled in a course on the psychology of the adult at Teachers College, Columbia University. It is evident from the data obtained from the questionnaire that there is considerable acceptance of erroneous ideas about older workers. This is even more surprising when the educational level, previous training in psychology, and the interest of the group in the older adult as evidenced by enrollment in a course dealing with the aging process, are taken into consideration. The study indicates that there is a need for more data to prove or disprove the prejudices and misconceptions about the skills, abilities, and

personality characteristics of the older worker. (tables)—*Gale L. Reeder.*

Rating

MOSEL, JAMES N., "The Validity of Rational Ratings on Experience and Training." *Personnel Psychology*, Spring, 1952.—Unless there is a demonstrable relationship to future job success, consideration of experience and training cannot make a meaningful contribution to employee selection. There are two systematic approaches to the problem of making predictions from records of experience and training. The first is the empirical method in which personal data items are analyzed statistically to determine which aspects distinguish between successful and unsuccessful employees. It does not consider patterns of experience but simply adds combinations of scores. It is a laborious task, largely of trial and error. In the rational approach, job specialists and subject-matter experts develop hypotheses concerning the relationship between various patterns of experience and job success. A study was made of the validity of rational ratings of experience and training as recorded in the application for federal employment. Thirteen trade jobs and three professional jobs were included. The rating system was "rational" in that it had been established by *a priori* judgments of job experts concerning the value of various elements of previous experience. When experience and training ratings were correlated with later supervisory evaluations of job performance, the results revealed no significant relationship. These findings do not necessarily mean that there is no relationship between work history and job performance, but only that the rating hypotheses employed were not verified. Evidence was also obtained about the popular contention that while experience ratings reveal what work the applicant has performed, information on how well he performed must be secured from recommendations and investigational interviews. Ratings on experience were found to bear no consistent relation to judgments submitted by references in written recommendations. On the other hand, correlations between experience rating and judgments based on investigation reports consistently tended to be rather high. While these results do not prove the popular contention, they at least show that investigation reports, and especially recommendations, are not merely duplicating ratings on experience and training. (Article contains tables of correlation results.) —*Robert A. Quinn.*

Recruitment

HALL, CLYDE C., and LEIGH, HAROLD H., "The Human Touch in Civil Service Placement." *Public Administration Review*, Summer, 1952.—Despite improvements in the competitive civil service system over the years, the operation of the placement system is often criticized as mechanistic. It is alleged that chance plays a major part in deciding where an applicant will work and what he will do.

For the candidate, too, the typical procedure often appears to be a grab bag. His preferences and special talents may receive little weight in his selection for his first government job.

The merit system need not operate in a cold-blooded way. This article will describe two examples of the human touch in civil service placement. The first is the selection of eligibles from the Junior Management Assistant examination. The second is the work of the Interdepartmental Placement Committee.

The Junior Management Assistant examination has been spearheaded by the Joint Committee of Expert Examiners for the Junior Management Assistant examination. This committee, composed of representatives from fifteen departments and agencies, develops the annual announcement and the examination plan, arranges for publicity, and arranges for the oral interview. The writing and the monitoring of the written examination is done by the U. S. Civil Service Commission.

Each year, agencies nominate people on their staffs to serve as JMA interviewers. These people, plus Civil Service Examiners, are thoroughly trained in the techniques of the group oral interview and are sent throughout the country to conduct these examinations. Candidates are screened on the basis of the written

test, their career interests, and the oral interview. Each candidate has the opportunity to discuss his job preferences in the final phase of the examination.

The final list of successful candidates is distributed to all participating agencies. Appointments are based on the results of the examination, the thorough review of the applicant's qualifications, and the individual's preference.

Since everyone on the list is placed, the candidate is usually assured of being employed by the agency of his choice.

Other human touches are noted in the commission's intern program. Actual training is carried on within the departments through lectures, discussions, and work assignments. Another example of the human touch is the attention given to counseling and guidance on a person-to-person basis.

The work of the Interdepartmental Placement Committee is primarily concerned with positions at a higher grade level. By meeting every week, forty well-trained placement officials from the executive departments describe vacancies in their agencies. The information garnered from these discussions constitutes an inventory of higher level personnel requirements of each agency. Recommendations are made as to different individuals suited for these higher jobs. By trading and upgrading employees interdepartmentally, both the departments and the individual employees are benefited.

When human judgment is injected into the personnel placement business, the cold documentation of a man's experience on an application form becomes the man himself, not merely a profile of the man.—James Newman.

Thanks to Our Abstractors

THE EDITORS of *Public Personnel Review* would like to take this opportunity to thank those who have contributed to the Current Literature Section during our 1952 publishing year. These abstractors have performed a valuable service for readers in preparing abstracts of significant articles dealing with personnel administration. Their contributions assist our readers in keeping abreast of the current literature in the public personnel field.

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